CONCISE
LATIN
GRAMMAR

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CONCISE
LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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Est modus in rebus, sunt certi denique fines — HORACE

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PREFACE

The purpose of the author in preparing this book has been to provide, in as concise a form as possible, a Latin grammar which should be of equal service to the high-school pupil and to the college undergraduate. To meet the needs of the former the fundamental and essential facts of the language have been stated as simply as possible and have been given due prominence on an open page. Statements of secondary importance appear in smaller type and all material that would be confusing to the beginner has been relegated to footnotes, and these have been reduced to a minimum. At the same time the scope of the book is such as to include all that is needed for translation of authors usually read in college. There is an obvious advantage to the student in using the same grammar throughout his Latin course.

The needs of the student have been made the guiding principle in the treatment of the examples. These are numerous and have been taken by preference from the portions of Cæsar, Cicero, and Vergil read in secondary schools. Furthermore, they have been simplified when too difficult for ready comprehension, without, however, destroying their validity.

In the matter of grammatical nomenclature a conservative attitude has been taken, but such of the new terms have been adopted as seem likely to win general acceptance.

Versification has been treated briefly and only the meters used by Vergil and Ovid have been explained. Further treatment is rendered superfluous by the fact that college texts

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of the lyric and dramatic poets now regularly include a detailed discussion of the meters used by their authors.

Other features which, it is hoped, will meet with a favorable reception are the introductory pages on the history of the Latin language, the brief and practical discussion of the formation of words, the paragraphs devoted to Roman names, the frequent synopses of constructions in the syntax, and a treatment of the Roman calendar somewhat fuller than is found in similar manuals. The rules for the order of words depart in some respects from doctrines previously held, and present the results, as far as they seem well established, of recent investigations in this field of research.

Grateful acknowledgment is due to Professor P. F. O'Brien, of St. Mary's College, Winona, Minnesota, for his careful revision of the proof and for many valuable suggestions and much useful criticism.

BENJAMIN L. D'OOGE

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INTRODUCTION

THE LATIN LANGUAGE

The Italic Dialects. Latin, the language of the Latins, is one of several closely related dialects that constitute the Italic branch of the Indo-European parent speech. Some of these dialects, particularly the Umbrian and the Oscan, were originally more important and more widely extended than Latin; but in time the political supremacy of Rome, the chief town of the Latins, made Latin the language not only of all Italy but of most of the Roman world.

Ancient Latium. The Latins inhabited Latium, originally an area of about twenty-five square miles at the mouth of the Tiber. By about 300 B.C., however, Rome had so broadened her sway that Latium included the region from a little above the mouth of the Tiber on the north to Sinuessa on the south, and extended inland to the first main chain of the Apennines. Yet even in this small district some of the subjugated tribes continued to use their native dialects for at least a century longer, though Latin was the official language.

Periods of Latin. No living language is ever stationary, and Latin underwent many changes in the course of its long history. We may distinguish the following six periods:

1. *Preliterary Latin*, from the earliest times to the beginnings of literature at Rome (about 240 B.C.).

2. *Early Latin*, from the beginnings of literature to the date of Cicero's first extant oration (240–81 B.C.).

This period includes such writers as Livius Andronicus, Nævius, Cato the Elder, Plautus, and Terence.

3. *Classical Latin*, or the Latin of the Golden Age, from Cicero's first extant oration to the death of Augustus (81 B.C. –A.D. 14).

This period includes most of the authors read at school and college.

4. *Latin of the Silver Age*, from the death of Augustus (A.D. 14) to about A.D. 170.

This period includes such authors as Phædrus, Seneca, Pliny the Elder, Pliny the Younger, Tacitus, Quintilian, Juvenal, Persius, and Martial.

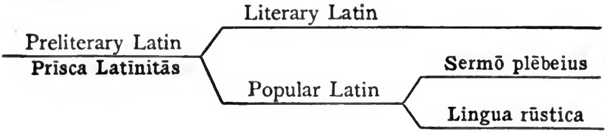
5. *Late Latin*, from about A.D. 170 to the fall of the Western Empire in A.D. 476.

6. *Medieval Latin*, a general term applied to the Latin of the Middle Ages.

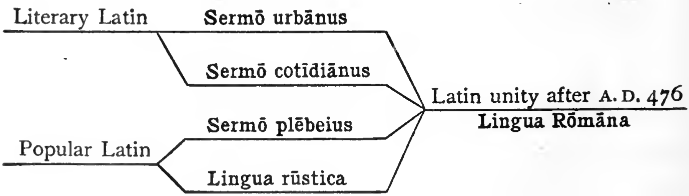
Development of Latin. A study of the development of Latin during these six periods is naturally based on surviving specimens of the language itself. Its earliest remains are in the form of inscriptions. The oldest inscription on metal is that on the golden fibula of Præneste; the oldest on stone is that found in 1899, carved on the four sides of a rectangular pillar of tufa lying about five feet below the pavement of the Roman Forum. Both are believed to be earlier than the fifth century B.C. Specimens of Latin earlier than the third century B.C. are exceedingly scanty, but soon after that time they become more numerous, and, after the earliest writers begin their labors (240 B.C.), materials are not lacking for constructing a history of the language.

Language rarely has a regular and uniform growth. There are many influences that may affect its character and determine its course of development. Chief among these are long and intimate association with a foreign tongue, the political superiority or inferiority of the people using the language, the degree of culture which they possess, and the use to which the language is put. How these influences affected the Latin language is briefly discussed in the following sections:

I. *Popular Latin and Literary Latin.* Preliterary Latin (**prīsca Latīnitās**), the language of early Latium, was spoken with comparatively little difference by all classes of society; but with the birth of literature a distinction began. The speech of the common people (**sermō plēbeius**) continued free and untrammeled, but the language of the literary classes was artificially developed on Greek models. The best examples of early popular Latin are found in the plays of Plautus, representing, as they do, the life of the common people. A ruder form of popular speech was that used in the country districts, hence called **lingua rūstica.** On this Cato's "Dē Agrī Cultūrā" is our only source of information. The development of Latin during the first two periods, then, may be represented by the diagram below:

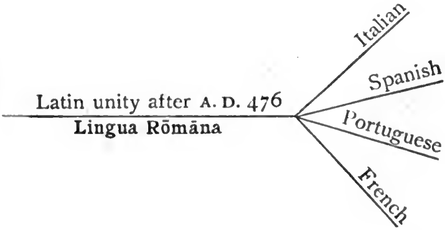


As time went on the difference between the popular and literary forms of expression became greater and greater, in spite of the fact that the influence of the cultivated language filtered down through the lower grades of society and that, on the other hand, many plebeian forms and constructions found their way into cultivated speech. By the beginning of the classical period, literary Latin, now known as the **sermō urbānus,** had become so polished and formal, and had suffered such proportionate loss of vitality, and the **sermō plēbeius** had diverged so far from the recognized standard, that there developed between the two a sort of compromise known as the **sermō cotīdiānus**, which provided a free and easy means of communication among all classes, and which even the educated doubtless used among intimates. Cicero's letters are the best example of the **sermō cotīdiānus** of the upper classes of his day, and the "Cēna Trimalchiōnis" of Petronius of the period preceding Hadrian (A.D. 117). Further, along with the three varieties of Latin used at Rome as described above, probably the **lingua rūstica** was still spoken in the country districts. These forms of speech continued to develop more or less independently until the close of the fifth period, marked by the downfall of the Western Empire (A.D. 476). With the end of literary activity at Rome, literary Latin disappeared, and all the forms of speech merged in one, sometimes called the **lingua Rōmāna**, which was the common means of communication throughout the Western world until the rise of the modern languages. The following diagram roughly indicates the course of the development of Latin from the beginning of the classical period (81 B.C.) to the close of the seventh century of our era:



II. *Provincial Latin.* Rome always imposed her speech as well as her customs upon the nations which she subjugated, and Latin was the official language of the provinces. The Romans dwelling in the provinces were, as a rule, not of the cultivated classes, but soldiers and traders, speaking popular Latin, that is, the **sermō plēbeius** or **lingua rūstica**. And it was from these that the native inhabitants learned Latin. Since popular Latin was constantly changing, provinces which were acquired at different times learned different kinds of Latin from the conquerors. For example, the Latin brought to Gaul by Cæsar's legions in the years 58–50 B.C. differed much from that brought to North Africa a century earlier by the soldiers of the younger Scipio. Another factor that caused variation was the difference in the native substratum. Latin spoken by a Gaul would, of course, not be quite the same as that spoken by a Spaniard or a German. Hence the Latin of the provinces was by no means homogeneous, but there was an increasing divergence from the accepted standard, especially in forms, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

III. *The Romance Languages.* It was the progressive development of the variations in provincial Latin that led in time to the formation of a number of different languages, which, because of their origin in the **lingua Rōmāna**, are known as the Romance languages. Of these the most important are Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, and French. The process of development was slow and gradual, and for several centuries these provincial languages, though differing in minor points, remained substantially Latin. It is therefore impossible to draw a sharp line of division between Latin and its descendants. On practical grounds, however, such a line is convenient and has been fixed at about A. D. 700. Consequently, at that time we may say that Latin unity ceased and the Romance languages began their independent existence.



The following illustration, taken from Brunot's "Histoire de la langue française," shows in a striking manner the unbroken line of descent from classic Latin to modern French. In the third column is shown the opening sentence of the Oath of Strasburg, A.D. 842. In the other columns is given the form which the words would have assumed at different periods.[1]

Classic Latin	Spoken Latin, Seventh Century	Actual Text of Oath (A.D. 842)
Per Dei amorem et per christiani populi et nostram communem salutem, ab hac die, quantum Deus scire et posse mihi dat, servabo hunc meum fratrem Carolum.	Por deo amore et por chrestyano pob(o)lo et nostro comune salvamento, de esto die en avante, en quanto Deos sabere et podere me donat, sic salvarayo eo eccesto meon fradre Karlo.	Pro deo amur et pro christian poblo et nostro commun salvament, d'ist di en avant, in quant Deus savir et podir me dunat, si salvarai eo cist meon fradre Karlo,

French, Eleventh Century	French, Fifteenth Century	Modern French
Por dieu amor et por del crestiien poeple et nostre comun salvement, de cest jorn en avant, quant que Dieus saveir et podeir me donet, si salverai jo cest mien fredre Charlon.	Pour l'amour Dieu et pour le sauvement du chrestien peuple et le nostre commun, de cest jour en avant, quant que Dieu savoir et pouvoir me done, si sauverai je cest mien frere Charle.	Pour l'amour de Dieu et pour le salut commun du peuple chrétien et le nôtre, à partir de ce jour, autant que Dieu m'en donne le savoir et le pouvoir, je soutiendrai mon frère Charles.

---

[1] The "classic Latin" and "spoken Latin" are, of course, mere attempts to turn the words of the Oath into the earlier language without regard to differences of idiom.

LATIN GRAMMAR

1. Latin Grammar treats of the principles and usages of the Latin language. In this book the discussion is limited mainly to the Classical Period or Golden Age (81 B.C.–A.D. 14), and comprises four parts: Sounds, Forms, Syntax, and Versification.

PART I. SOUNDS

THE ALPHABET

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English except that it lacks the characters **j**, **u**, and **w**.

The Latin alphabet is derived from a form of the Greek alphabet, known as the Chalcidic, which was brought to Italy by Greek colonists as early as the ninth century B.C. It originally consisted of capital letters only. The small letters, or cursives, were not evolved until the eighth century of our era.

a. **C** had originally the value of **g**, and retained that value in the abbreviation **C.** for **Gaius** and **Cn.** for **Gnaeus**. Later it was used to express the sound of **k**, and **k** disappeared, except before **a** in a few words: as, **Kalendae**, **Karthāgō**.

b. **I** and **v** were used both as vowels and as consonants. The character **j**, representing consonant **i**, dates from the seventeenth century, and the character **u**, representing vowel **v**, from the tenth.

In this book, **u** is used for vowel **v**, **v** for consonant **v**, and **i** is used for both vowel and consonant **i**: as, **iūdicium**, **veniō**, **iuventūs**.

c. The Greek letters **υ** (*upsilon*) and **ζ** (*zēta*) were added to the Latin alphabet as **y** and **z** in the first century B.C., and were used only in words borrowed from Greek or in Greek proper names.

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS

3. The sounds of language are either Vowels or Consonants. In pronouncing a vowel, there is an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound; in pronouncing a consonant, the sound is more or less obstructed.

4. The simple vowels are **a**, **e**, **i**, **o**, **u**, **y**. The remaining letters represent consonants.

5. The diphthongs in common use are **ae**, **oe**, and **au**.

Eu and **ui** occur in a few words, and, in early Latin, **ai**, **ei**, **oi**, **ou**.

6. Consonants are either voiced (*sonant*) or voiceless (*surd*). Voiced consonants are pronounced with a vibration of the vocal chords. Voiceless consonants lack this vibration.

Thus, *d* in *den* is voiced; *t* in *ten* is voiceless.

a. The voiced consonants are **b**, **d**, **g**, consonant **i**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, **v**.

b. The voiceless consonants are **c**, **f**, **h**, **k**, **p**, **q**, **s**, **t**, **x**.

7. Consonants are divided, according to the organs determining their peculiar sound, into *labials*, *dentals*, and *palatals*.

a. ***Labials*** are pronounced with the lips: as, **p**, **b**.

b. ***Dentals*** (sometimes called ***Linguals***) are pronounced with the tip of the tongue touching or approaching the upper front teeth: as, **t**, **d**.

c. ***Palatals*** are pronounced with the upper surface of the tongue touching or approaching the palate: as, **k**, **g**.

8. Consonants are classified, according to the way in which the breath is used, as *mutes*, *nasals*, *liquids*, and *spirants*.

a. ***Mutes*** (speechless letters). In pronouncing a *mute* the breath, as it passes through the mouth, is checked for an instant and then allowed to escape explosively: as, **p**, **t**.

b. ***Nasals***. In pronouncing a *nasal* the mouth is closed and the breath passes through the nose: as, **m**, **n**.

c. ***Liquids.*** In pronouncing a *liquid* the breath flows freely through the mouth: as, **l**, **r**.

d. ***Spirants*** or ***Fricatives.*** In pronouncing a *spirant* the breath passes continuously through the mouth with audible friction: as, **s**, **f**.

9. The vowels **i** and **u** when used as consonants (§ 2. *b*) so far retain their vocalic character that they are called semivowels.

10. The following table shows the consonants classified according to the preceding sections (§§ 6–9):

	LABIAL	DENTAL	PALATAL
Mutes, voiced	**b**	**d**	**g**
Mutes, voiceless	**p**	**t**	**c**, **k**, **q**
Nasals, voiced	**m**	**n**	**n** (before **c**, **g**, **q**)
Liquids, voiced		**l**, **r**	
Spirants, voiceless	**f**	**s**	**h**
Semivowels, voiced	**v**		consonant **i**
x (= **cs**) is called a double consonant.			

ORTHOGRAPHY

11. The spelling of Latin varied considerably at different periods. Our knowledge rests mainly upon inscriptions for the earlier periods; and to this testimony is added, for the later periods, the statements of the Latin grammarians.

12. The spelling of the first century of our era is fairly uniform, and is commonly used in modern editions of the classics. Some of the most important changes from the earlier spelling are the following:

a. After **v** or **u** an earlier **o** was changed to **u**. Thus, earlier **voltus**, **servos**, **mortuos**, became **vultus**, **servus**, **mortuus**.

b. Earlier **quo** became **cu** in the Augustan age, and this, in turn, became **quu** in the second century of our era. The spelling **quu** is that adopted in most modern editions. Thus, earlier **equos** became **ecus**, then **equus**; **sequontur** became **secuntur**, then **sequuntur.**

NOTE. Earlier **quom** became **cum**, but did not change to **quum** till the sixth century of our era.

c. Similarly, **nguo** was changed first to **ngu**, then to **nguu.** Thus, original **exstinguont** became **exstingunt**, later **exstinguunt.**

d. Before labials **ŭ** became **ĭ** in the Augustan age. This change is regular in unaccented syllables and occurs in some that are accented. Thus, earlier **maxumus, lacruma, frūctubus, pontufex, lubet**, became **maximus, lacrima, frūctibus, pontifex, libet.**

PRONUNCIATION

13. Latin, in the classical period, had approximately the following sounds:

14. Sounds of the Vowels.

ā as in *father*	**ă** as the first *a* in *aha*
ē as *a* in *fate*	**ĕ** as in *pet*
ī as in *machine*	**ĭ** as in *bit*
ō as in *bone*	**ŏ** as in *obey*
ū as *oo* in *boot*	**ŭ** as in *full*, or as *oo* in *foot*

y between **u** and **i** (French *u* or German *ü*)

15. Sounds of the Diphthongs. In diphthongs (two-vowel sounds) both vowels are heard in a single syllable.

ae as *ai* in *aisle*	**eu** as *ĕ'o͝o* (a short **e** followed by a short **u**), almost like *ew* in *new*
au as *ou* in *out*	**ui** as *o͝o'ĭ* (a short **u** followed by a short **i**), almost like *wi* in *will*
ei as in *eight*	
oe as *oi* in *toil*	

16. Sounds of the Consonants. The consonants are pronounced as in English, except that —

c is always like *c* in *cat*, never as in *cent*.

g is always like *g* in *get*, never as in *gem*.

i consonant is always like *y* in *yes*.

n before **c**, **q**, or **g** is like *ng* in *sing* (compare *n* in *anchor*).

qu, **gu**, and sometimes **su**, before a vowel have the sounds of *qw*, *gw*, and *sw*. Here **u** stands for consonant **v** and is not a vowel.

r is trilled as in French or Italian.

s is like *s* in *sea*, never as in *ease*.

t is always like *t* in *native*, never as in *nation*.

v is like *w* in *wine*, never as in *vine*.

x has the value of two consonants (**cs**) and is like *x* in *extract*.

z medial is like *dz* in *adze*; **z** initial probably like English *z*.

bs is like *ps*, and **bt** like *pt*.

17. The Greek combinations **ph**, **th**, **ch**, known as aspirates, were in that language equivalent to **p**, **t**, **k**, respectively, followed by a rough breathing or aspirate **h** (as in *up-hill*, *hot-house*, *ink-horn*). In Latin they are confined almost exclusively to words of Greek derivation, and in the classical period were probably sounded like simple **p**, **t**, **c**.

18. Between consonant **i** and a preceding **a**, **e**, **o**, or **u** a vowel **i** was developed, thus producing diphthong **ai**, **ei**, etc., before the consonant **i**. In such cases, however, but one **i** was written: as, **aiō** for **ai-iō**, **maius** for **mai-ius**.

19. In compounds **iaciō** was spelled **-iciō** (not **-iiciō**): as, **coniciō**, pronounced **coniiciō** (*con-yiciō*, consonant **i** preceding vowel **i**).

20. Doubled letters, as **tt**, **pp**, **ll**, should be pronounced with a slight pause between the two articulations. Thus, pronounce **tt** as in *rat-trap*, not as in *rattle*; **pp** as in *hop-pole*, not as in *upper*.

SYLLABLES

21. A Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs. Thus, **aes-tā-te** has three syllables, **dē-lū-de-re** has four.

22. Words are divided into syllables as follows:

a. A single consonant between two vowels is pronounced with the following vowel: as, **a-mā-bi-lis**, **me-mo-ri-a**, **a-best**, **pe-rē-git**.

Note. The combination **qu** is treated as a single consonant: as, **e-quus**. The double consonant **x** (= **cs**) is joined sometimes with the preceding, sometimes with the following, vowel: **aux-it** or **au-xit**.

b. A mute and a liquid are pronounced with the following vowel except in the case of prepositional compounds: as, **pū-blicus, a-grī**; but **ob-lītus, ab-rumpō.**

Note. In poetry when a long syllable (cf. § 29) is needed, the mute may in all cases be joined with the preceding vowel: as, **ag-rī.**

c. In all other combinations of consonants the last of the group is pronounced with the following vowel: as, **mag-nus, il-le, sānc-tus, su-bāc-tus, hos-pes, sūmp-tus.**

Note. In dividing a word at the end of a line of writing or printing, prepositional compounds are separated into their component parts: as, **ab-est, per-ēgit, sub-āctus, circum-stō.**

23. A syllable ending in a consonant is called *closed*, one ending in a vowel or dipththong, *open*. Thus, the first syllable of **re-git** is *open*, the second *closed.*

24. The last syllable of a word is called the *ultima*; the next to the last, the *penult*; that before the penult, the *antepenult*. Thus, **amantur** consists of **a-** (antepenult), **-man-** (penult), **-tur** (ultima).

QUANTITY

25. The quantity[1] of a vowel or a syllable is the time occupied in pronouncing it. There are two degrees of quantity, *long* and *short.*

Note. Technically, a long vowel or syllable is regarded as having twice the length (in time) of a short one. Correct pronunciation, accent, and the scansion of verse depend upon the proper observance of quantity.

26. A vowel or a syllable that may be either long or short in quantity is said to be *common.*

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[1] The rules for quantity are given with greater detail under Versification. Only a few of the leading facts are here stated.

I. QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

27. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong (as, **cū-rō**, **poe-nae**, **aes-tā-te**) or if it ends in a consonant which is followed by another consonant (as, **cor-pus**, **mag-nus**).[1]

In the former case it is said to be *long by nature*; in the latter, *long by position*.

NOTE. The *vowel* in a long syllable may be either long or short and should be pronounced accordingly. Thus, in **ter-ra** the first syllable is long, but the vowel is short. In words like **saxum** the first syllable is long because **x** has the value of two consonants (§ 16).

28. A syllable is short if it ends in a short vowel: as, **a-mor**, **pi-grī**.

29. A syllable is common if its vowel is short and is followed by a mute and a liquid (**l** or **r**).

NOTE. The quantity here depends upon the way in which the word is divided into syllables. Thus, in **pig-rī** the first syllable ends in a consonant and is long; but in **pi-grī** the first syllable ends in a short vowel and is short. In prose the latter is the regular division (§ 22. *b*) and such syllables are regarded as short, but poets often find it convenient to divide the other way.[2]

30. A syllable ending in **a**, **e**, **o**, or **u**, and followed by consonant **i**, is long whether the vowel is long or short: as, **aiō**, **peius**.

31. In compounds of **iaciō**, the first syllable, if ending with a consonant, is long by position, the consonant **i** of the simple verb being pronounced though not written: as, **in-iciō** (for **in-iiciō**).

32. In determining quantity by position, **h** and consonant **u** in **qu**, **gu**, **su** (§ 16), are not counted as consonants.

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[1] When two consonants belonging to different syllables concur, the first is obstructed in its pronunciation by the presence of the second and is called an **obstructed consonant**. Length by position is due to the time consumed in pronouncing the two consonants and in passing from one to the other.

[2] The first syllable of prepositional compounds of this nature is always long (§ 22. *b*): as, **ob-lītus**, **ab-rumpō**.

II. QUANTITY OF VOWELS

33. Vowels are either long (-) or short (⌣) by nature and are pronounced accordingly.

NOTE. In this book long vowels are marked, and short vowels are, as a rule, unmarked. Vowels marked with both signs at once (⏓) occur sometimes as long and sometimes as short.

34. While there are no comprehensive rules for determining vowel quantity, the following statements are of practical value:

a. A vowel is long before **nf**, **ns**, **nx**, and **nct** (as, **īnferō**, **regēns**, **sānxī**, **ūnctus**) or when it is the result of contraction: as, **nīl** for **nihil.**

b. A vowel is short before another vowel in the same word or before **h** (as, **rŭ-ī-na**, **tră-hō**); before **nt** and **nd**, before final **m** or **t**, and (except in words of one syllable) before final **l** or **r**: as, **portănt**, **portăndus**, **portābăm**, **portābăt**, **animăl**, **amŏr.**

NOTE. A long vowel occasionally appears before **nt** or **nd** as the result of contraction (§ 34. *a*): as, **cōntiō** (for **conventiō**), **nūntius** (for **noventius**), **prēndō** (for **prehendō**).

c. Diphthongs are always long by nature and are not marked.

ACCENT

35. In Latin, as in English, accent is a stress of voice which makes one syllable more prominent in utterance than another.

36. Original Accent. In the earliest times every Latin word was stressed strongly on the first syllable. This fact led to phonetic changes which will be discussed later (§§ 42 ff.).

37. Later Accent. Before the beginning of the classical period there had become established the "three-syllable law," by which the accent is restricted to the last three syllables of the word. Thus:

a. Words of two syllables are accented on the first: as, **mēn'sa, Cae'sar.**

b. Words of more than two syllables are accented on the penult if that is long, otherwise on the antepenult: as, **mo-nē'mus, a-man'dus, re'gi-tur.**

NOTE. Observe that the position of the accent is determined by the length of the *syllable*, and not by the length of the vowel in the syllable.

c. Compounds follow the same rules as simple words.

38. Exceptions.

a. **Faciō** when compounded with other words than prepositions retains the accent of the simple verb: as, **benefă'cit, satisfă'cit.**

b. Genitives in **-ī** (instead of **-iī**) and vocatives in **-ī** (instead of **-ie**; see § 88. *c*) accent the penult, even if it is short: as, **ingĕ'nī, Vergĭ'lī.**

c. Certain words which have lost a final vowel or have suffered contraction are accented on the last syllable: as, **illīc'** (for **illī'ce**), **tantōn'** (for **tantō'ne**), **prōdūc'** (for **prōdū'ce**), **addīc'** (for **addī'ce**), **audīn'** (for **audīs'ne**), **Arpīnās'** (for **Arpīnā'tis**), **Quirīs'** (for **Quirī'tis**), **mūnīt'** (for **mūnī'vit**).

39. Enclitics. An enclitic is a word which has no separate existence, but is joined to the word that precedes it.

The commonest enclitics are **-que**, *and*; **-ve**, *or*; **-ne**, the sign of a question; **-ce**, **-met**, **-nam**, and **-te**, used merely for emphasis.

40. When an enclitic is joined to a word, the accent falls on the syllable next before the enclitic, whether that syllable is long or short: as, **populus'que, dea'que, rēgna've, audit'ne.**

NOTE. This rule rests on the authority of Latin grammarians of the fourth and fifth centuries of our era, and, while valid for that period, may not have been followed in the Augustan age.

a. In some combinations **-que** has lost its meaning of *and*, and forms a real part of the word to which it is attached. Such words are accented regularly: as, **de'nique, un'dique, i'taque** (*accordingly*).

NOTE. **Utră'que**, *each*, and **plēră'que**, *most*, from **uter'que** and **plērus'que**, accent the penult, though **-que** is not enclitic.

41. Adjacent words pronounced together are sometimes written as one, the second sometimes assuming the character of an enclitic. The resulting combinations may show changes in form (cf. English *I'm* for *I am*, *I've* for *I have*).

NOTE. Such combinations are most frequent in colloquial Latin, and occur especially when **es** or **est** is preceded by a word ending in a vowel, **m**, or **s**: thus, **homōst** (**homō est**), **perīculumst** (**perīculum est**), **audītas** (**audīta es**), **quālist** (**quālis est**), **vīn** (**vīsne**), **scīn** (**scīsne**), **sīs** (**sī vīs**), **sōdēs** (**sī audēs**), **sultis** (**sī vultis**).

PHONETIC CHANGES

42. Classical Latin often differs in form from that of the earlier periods. Such changes are due to the working of certain laws of speech (*phonetic laws*) which, in general, had the effect of weakening, shortening, or dropping vowels in unaccented syllables and of changing or dropping consonants difficult to pronounce.

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS

A. WEAKENING OF VOWELS

43. Most of the changes in vowels were due to the strong stress accent which, in early Latin, fell on the first syllable of every word. (Cf. § 36.) This tended to preserve a vowel or diphthong of the accented syllable, but to weaken it in other syllables not accented.

44. Weakening of vowels in syllables *originally unaccented* regularly took the following direction:

a. **ă** before two consonants became **ĕ**, except that before **ng** it became **ĭ**: as, **cōnfectus** for ***cōn-factus**,[1] but **contingō** for ***con-tangō**.

b. **ă** before a single consonant became **ĭ**: as, **cōnficiō** for ***cōn-faciō**, **cecidī** for ***cecadī**.

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[1] Assumed forms are marked by an asterisk.

c. **ĕ**, usually retained before two consonants or **r**, became **ĭ** before a single consonant: as, **adimō** for ***ad-emō**; **mīles** for ***mīlets**, but **mīlitis** for ***mīletes**.

d. **ae** became **ī**: as, **exīstimō** for ***ex-aestimō**.

e. **au** became **ū**: as, **inclūdō** for ***in-claudō**.

45. Long vowels and diphthongs in syllables *originally accented* suffered no weakening, but in classical Latin the old diphthongs **ai** and **oi** were written **ae** and **oe**: as, **quaestor**, early **quaistor**; **poena**, early **poina**.

In the second century B.C. the diphthong **oe** became **ū**, but **oe** was retained in some words. Thus, in **poena** and **pūniō**, **moenia** and **mūniō**, both forms go back to an original spelling with **oi**. In late Latin **oe** became **ē**: as, **fēderātus**.

B. CONTRACTION OF VOWELS

46. Two concurrent vowels were often contracted into one long vowel.

a. Two like vowels might be contracted into the corresponding long vowel: as, **nīl** from **ni(h)il**, **cōpia** from ***coopia**, **prēndō** from **pre(h)endō**.

b. Two unlike vowels were usually contracted into the long form of the first: as, **dēgō** from ***dē-agō**, **cōgō** from ***co-agō**, **dēbeō** from ***dē-(h)abeō**, **amāsse** from **amā(v)isse**, **cōnsuēsse** from **cōnsuē(v)isse**.

c. Many concurrent vowels remained uncontracted: as, **audiō**, **maria**, **tuus**, **dēleō**, etc.

C. DROPPING OF VOWELS

47. *a.* A short vowel following an accented syllable was sometimes dropped: as, **valdē** from **va'lidē**, **rettulī** from ***re'tetulī**, **dextra** from **dex'tera**. This is called *syn'co-pe.*

b. A final short vowel was sometimes dropped: as, **dūc** from **dūce**, **animal** from ***animāli**. This is called *a-poc'o-pe.*

II. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS

48. **dt, tt** became **ds, ts,** then **s** or **ss** (§ 53.*a*): as, **sessus** from ***sedtus, clausus** from ***claudtus, passus** from ***pattus.**

49. An original **s** between two vowels became **r**: as, **honōris** from ***honōsis, amāre** from ***amāse, eram** from ***esam.** This is called *rho'tacism* from the Greek letter **rho = r.**

NOTE. Words like **mīsī** and **causa** are from original **missī** and **caussa.**

50. **g, c,** or **h** combined with a following **s** to form **x**: as, **rēx** from ***rēgs, dux** from ***ducs, trāxī** from ***trahsī.**[1]

51. When two consonants came together, they tended to assimilate, that is, become like each other.

NOTE. Sometimes the assimilation was complete: as, **sella** from ***sedla, siccus** from ***sitcus, collis** from ***colnis, summus** from ***supmus.** Sometimes the assimilation went only so far that one letter became like the other in character: thus a voiced consonant might change to a voiceless one; or, when the concurrent consonants were sounded with different vocal organs, one of them might be changed to another using the same vocal organ as its neighbor. Thus ***scrībtus** became **scrīptus**, the voiced consonant **b** becoming voiceless to agree with the voiceless **t**; and ***prīmceps** became **prīnceps**, the labial nasal **m** changing to the palatal nasal **n** to agree with the palatal mute **c**.

52. Complete or partial assimilation occurred both in inflections and in composition, and was especially marked in the last consonant of prepositions in composition.

53. Complete Assimilation:

a. **ds** and **ts** became **ss**, which was simplified to **s** after a long vowel or diphthong: thus, ***cedsī** became **cessī,** ***dīvīdsī** became **dīvīsī,** ***claudsī** became **clausī**, ***concutsī** became **concussī.**

b. A mute was often assimilated to a following mute, liquid, or nasal: thus, ***adger** became **agger**, ***sedla** became **sella**, ***supmus**

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[1] The **h** in **trahō** represents an original **gh.**

became **summus**, ***sitcus** became **siccus**, **adligō** became **alligō**, **adpellō** became **appellō**, ***obcurrō** became **occurrō**, ***subplicō** became **supplicō**.

NOTE. In prepositional compounds the final consonant of the preposition was often assimilated (cf. the last four examples above); but usage varied, and in many compounds the assimilated form was found rarely, if at all, in the classical period.

54. Partial Assimilation:

a. Voiced **b** or **g** before voiceless **s** or **t** was usually changed to corresponding voiceless **p** or **c**: thus, ***scrībsī** became **scrīpsī**, ***scrībtus** became **scrīptus**, ***augtus** became **auctus**.

b. Labial **m** before dental mutes was regularly changed to dental **n**, and before palatal mutes was often changed to palatal **n**: thus, ***tamtus** became **tantus**, ***eumdem** became **eundem**, ***prīmceps** became **prīnceps**.

c. A labial mute before **n** became **m**: thus, ***sopnus** became **somnus**.

55. Dropping of Consonants:

a. In final syllables a **d** or a **t** before **s** was dropped: thus, ***lapids** became **lapis**, ***mīlets** became **mīles**.

b. Final consonants were often dropped: thus, ***virgon** became **virgō**, ***cord** became **cor**, **praedād** became **praedā**, **habētōd** became **habētō**.

NOTE. When several consonants formed a group difficult to pronounce, one or more were sometimes dropped: as, **ostendō** for ***obstendō**, **quīntus** for ***quīnctus**, **misceō** for ***migsceō**. But when the group could be easily pronounced, no consonants were lost: as, **iūnxī**, **rōstrum**, **stringō**, **ūnctus**, **sprētus**.

III. VOWEL GRADATION OR ABLAUT

56. The Indo-European parent speech, of which most of the languages of Europe are descendants, showed a regular system of vowel variation in the same word or kindred words. This variation is called vowel gradation or *ablaut*. Plain traces of *ablaut* remain in all the languages derived from the Indo-European. Compare, for example, English *drink*, *drank*, *drunk*; *steal*, *stole*; *bind*, *bound*.

57. Vowel gradation in Latin appears sometimes as a mere difference of quantity in the same vowel (as, **ī, i** ; **ū, u** ; etc.) and sometimes as a difference in the vowel itself (as, **e, o** ; **i, ae** ; etc.).

rĕgere, *rule*	**tĕgere**, *cover*	**mĭser**, *wretched*
rēx, *king*	**tŏga**, *robe*	**maestus**, *sad*
	tēgula, *tile*	
dūcere, *lead*		**sēdēs**, *seat*
dŭx, *leader*	**fīdere**, *trust*	**sĕdēre**, *sit*
	fĭdēs, *faith*	**sŏdālis**, *companion*
dăre, *give*	**foedus**, *treaty*	**sīdō** (for ***sĭ-sd-ō**), *sit*
dōnum, *gift*		
	mŏnēre, *remind*	**nŏcēre**, *harm*
	mēns, *mind*	**nĕx**, *murder*

PART II. FORMS

58. Parts of Speech. Latin has eight parts of speech: nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Latin has no article. This must be supplied by the context.

59. Inflections. Words may change their forms to show some change in sense or use. This change is called *inflection*

In Latin, nouns,[1] adjectives, pronouns, and verbs are capable of inflection. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are not inflected, and are called particles.

a. Inflectional changes sometimes take place in the body of a word, or at the beginning, but oftener in its termination.

vōx, *a voice*	**vocō**, *I call*	**vocet**, *let him call*	**tangit**, *he touches*
vōcis, *of a voice*	**vocat**, *he calls*	**vocāvit**, *he has called*	**tetigit**, *he touched*

60. Declension and Conjugation. The inflection of nouns, adjectives,[2] and pronouns is called declension; that of verbs is called conjugation.

61. Roots. Words are built up from roots.

A root is the simplest form to which a word can be reduced. It is always a monosyllable, and contains the fundamental meaning of the word, but cannot, as a rule, be used as a part of speech without modification.

Thus from the root **sta-** we form the adjective **sta-bilis** by adding to it an ending called a suffix.

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[1] A few nouns are incapable of inflection. These are called indeclinable nouns: as, **fās**, *right*; **nihil**, *nothing*.

[2] Adjectives are sometimes said to have inflections of *comparison*. The forms of comparison are, however, really new stems and are not strictly to be regarded as forms of inflection.

62. Stems. The stem or theme is the body of a word to which terminations are attached.

Sometimes the stem is the same as the root, but usually the stem is formed from the root by the addition of a suffix or by changing or lengthening its vowel.

Thus the *root* **duc-** is also the *stem* of **duc-is**, *of a leader*; but from the root **voc-** we may form **voc-ā-**, stem of **vocāre**, *call*; **voc-āto-**, stem of **vocātus**, *called*; **voc-ātiōn-**, stem of **vocātiōnis**, *of a calling*; etc. By lengthening the vowel of this same root we get **vōc-**, the stem of **vōc-is**, *of a voice.*

NOTE. The root itself may have various forms. See § 57.

63. Bases. The base is that part of a word which remains unchanged in inflection: as, **serv-** in **servus**, **mēns-** in **mēnsa**, **am-** in **amem.**

a. The base and the stem are often identical, as in many consonant stems of nouns (as, **rēg-** in **rēg-is**). If, however, the stem ends in a vowel, the latter does not appear in the base, but is variously combined with the inflectional termination. Thus the stem of **servus** is **servo-**, that of **mēnsīs** is **mēnsā-**, and that of **ignem** is **igni-**.

GENDER

64. Latin, like English, has three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter.

65. The gender of Latin nouns is either natural or grammatical.

I. NATURAL GENDER

66. Natural gender is determined by *sex* and belongs only to animate beings.

puer, M., *boy*	**vir**, M., *man*	**equus**, M., *horse*
puella, F., *girl*	**mulier**, F., *woman*	**equa**, F., *mare*

a. Many nouns may be either masculine or feminine according to the sex of the object denoted. These are said to be of *common* gender: as, **cīvis**, *citizen* (male or female); **parēns**, *parent* (either father or mother).

II. GRAMMATICAL GENDER

67. Grammatical gender belongs to names of objects and qualities having no sex distinction. Such words may be either masculine, feminine, or neuter, and their gender is usually indicated by the termination of the nominative singular.

fluvius, M., *stream*	**rīpa**, F., *bank*	**caelum**, N., *sky*

a. Names of *months* are masculine, being really adjectives agreeing with **mēnsis**, M., *month*, understood. So names of *winds* and many names of *rivers* are masculine (perhaps through the influence of **ventus**, M., *wind*, and **fluvius** or **amnis**, M., *stream*).

b. Many names of *countries*, *towns*, *islands*, and *trees* are feminine.

c. Some names of animals have grammatical gender. The same form is then used for either sex: as, **vulpēs**, F., *fox*, of either sex; **ānser**, M., *gander* or *goose*. Nouns with but one gender for both sexes are called *epicene*.

68. Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, and all expressions, phrases, or clauses used as nouns are *neuter*.

fās, *right*	**māne**, *morning*
nihil, *nothing*	**scīre tuum**, *your knowledge*

69. Words borrowed from the Greek or from other languages usually retain the gender of the original.

Lēthē, F., *Lethe* (a river)	**Bibracte**, N., *Bibracte* (a town in Gaul)

PERSON

70. In Latin, as in English, there are three persons. The first person denotes the *person speaking*; the second person, the *person spoken to*; the third person, the *person spoken of*.

NUMBER

71. Latin, like English, has two numbers, the singular and the plural. The singular number denotes one, the plural number more than one.

NOUNS AND THEIR DECLENSION

72. A noun is the name of a person, place, thing, or idea.

Caesar, *Cæsar*	**Rōma**, *Rome*	**domus**, *house*	**virtūs**, *virtue*

NOTE. The term *substantive* is often applied to a noun or to any word or expression used like a noun.

a. Names of individual persons or places are called proper nouns: as, **Caesar**, **Rōma**. Other nouns are called common nouns.

b. Nouns are either abstract or concrete.

1. An abstract noun is the name of a quality or idea: as, **virtūs**, *virtue*; **metus**, *fear*.

2. A concrete noun is the name of something that has physical existence and can be seen, touched, or handled: as, **domus**, *house*; **aqua**, *water*.

NOTE. Nouns that are abstract are often used in a concrete sense and *vice versa*.

c. A collective noun is a concrete noun denoting a group or class of objects.

exercitus, *army*	**grex**, *herd*	**populus**, *people*

73. Declension. Nouns are declined by adding certain terminations to a common base or stem. The resulting form is called a *case*.

Each case form, therefore, consists of two distinct elements, the base or stem and the case ending. If the stem ends in a consonant, the base and the stem are identical and the case endings appear distinct and unchanged. But if the stem ends in a vowel, this vowel may so combine with the case endings that the stem and real endings are hard to distinguish. The suffix produced by the combination of the final vowel of the stem and the case ending is called a *case termination*, and this term may be conveniently extended to all inflectional suffixes added to the base.

Thus **duc-is** consists of the consonant stem or base **duc-** and the case termination **-is**, which is also the actual case ending; but **iugō** (base **iug-**, case termination **-ō**) goes back to an original ***iugo-ai**, which shows the stem to be **iugo-** and the actual case ending **-ai**.

74. The Cases. There are six cases in Latin:

Nominative, case of the subject.

Genitive, case of the possessor or of the object with *of*.

Dative, case of the object with *to* or *for*, especially the indirect object.

Accusative, case of the direct object.

Vocative, case of address.

Ablative, case of the object with *from*, *with*, *by*, *in*, or *at*.

a. *The Locative Case.* Forms of another case, the *locative*, denoting the *place where*, appear in some names of towns and a few other words.

b. *The Oblique Cases.* All the cases except the nominative and the vocative are called the *oblique cases*.

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS OF NOUNS

75. Nouns are inflected in five declensions, distinguished by the final letter of the stem and by the case termination of the genitive singular.

Declension	Final Letter of the Stem	Termination of the Genitive
First	**ā-**	**-ae**
Second	**ŏ-**	**-ī**
Third	**ĭ-** or a consonant.	**-ĭs**
Fourth	**ŭ-**	**-ūs**
Fifth	**ē-**	**-ĕī**

a. The *base* of a noun may always be found by dropping the case termination. In consonant stems the *base* and the *stem* are identical. In vowel stems the stem is formed from the base by adding the final stem-vowel.

Thus the *base* of **domin-ī**, the genitive singular of **dominus**, a noun of the second declension, is **domin-**, and the *stem* is **domino-**, formed by adding **o-**, the final stem-vowel of the second declension, to the *base*.

GENERAL RULES OF DECLENSION

76. ***a.*** The vocative is always the same as the nominative except in some Greek nouns and in the singular of nouns in **-us** of the second declension.

It is not included in the paradigms unless it differs from the nominative.

b. In neuters the nominative and accusative are always alike and in the plural end in **-ă**. The first and fifth declensions have no neuters.

c. The accusative singular of all masculines and feminines ends in **-m**, the accusative plural in **-s**.

d. The dative and ablative plural are always alike.

e. In the third, fourth, and fifth declensions the accusative plural is like the nominative plural.

f. Final **-i**, **-o**, **-u** in case forms are always *long*; final **-a** is always *short*, except in the ablative singular of the first declension.

THE FIRST DECLENSION — *Ā*-STEMS

77. The stem of nouns of the first declension ends in **ā-**: as, **dominā-**, stem of **domină**, *lady*.

78. The Nominative Singular. Latin nouns of the first or **ā-**declension end in **-ă** in the nominative singular, and they are regularly feminine unless they denote males.

a. Examples of masculine nouns in **-a** are:

scrība, *scribe* **verna**, *slave* **agricola**, *farmer* **nauta**, *sailor*

also some proper nouns: as,

Mūrēna, *Murena* **Belgae**, *the Belgæ* **Hadria**, *the Adriatic*

79. Declension. Nouns of the first declension are declined as follows:

domina, F., ***the*** **(*a*)** ***lady***

STEM **dominā-** BASE **domin-**

SINGULAR

	CASES	MEANINGS	TERMINATIONS
NOM.	domin**a**	*the lady* (subject)	**-a**
GEN.	domin**ae**	*of the lady* or *the lady's*	**-ae**
DAT.	domin**ae**	*to* or *for the lady*	**-ae**
ACC.	domin**am**	*the lady* (direct object)	**-am**
ABL.	domin**ā**	*with, from, by,* etc. *the lady*	**-ā**

PLURAL

NOM.	domin**ae**	*the ladies* (subject)	**-ae**
GEN.	domin**ārum**	*of the ladies* or *the ladies'*	**-ārum**
DAT.	domin**īs**	*to* or *for the ladies*	**-īs**
ACC.	domin**ās**	*the ladies* (direct object)	**-ās**
ABL.	domin**īs**	*with, from, by,* etc. *the ladies*	**-īs**

PECULIAR CASE FORMS IN THE FIRST DECLENSION

80. ***a.*** An old genitive singular in **-ās** is sometimes preserved in the form **familiās**, used in the combination **pater** (**māter**, **fīlius**, **fīlia**) **familiās**, *father* (*mother, son, daughter*) *of a family*; plural, **patrēs familiās** or **familiārum**.

b. In early Latin the genitive singular ended in **-āī** (pronounced in two syllables): as, **aulā'ī**. This ending is sometimes found later in poetry.

> **aulāī mediō lībābant pōcula Bacchī**, *in the midst of the court they poured libations of wine*

c. The singular of names of towns in **-a** and of a few common nouns has a *locative* case in **-ae** (for **-āi**) to denote the *place where.*

Rōmae, *at Rome*	**mīlitiae**, *in military service*

Names of towns that are plural in form and belong to the first declension have a locative in **-īs** not distinguishable from the ablative.

Athēnīs, *at Athens*	**Thēbīs**, *at Thebes*

d. A genitive plural in **-um** instead of in **-ārum** is sometimes found in poetry, especially in Greek nouns denoting descent.

Aeneadum, *of the descendants of Æneas*
caelicolum, *of the heaven dwellers*

e. The dative and ablative plural of **dea**, *goddess*, and **fīlia**, *daughter*, and of some other words take the ending **-ābus** instead of **-īs** to distinguish them from corresponding masculine forms.

Thus **deābus** and **fīliābus** are distinguished from **deīs** and **fīliīs**, corresponding forms of **deus**, *god*, and **fīlius**, *son*, respectively.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE FIRST DECLENSION

81. Most *common* nouns of the first declension borrowed from the Greek have Latin forms throughout (as, **aula**, *court*; **philosophia**, *philosophy*); but *proper* nouns generally retain traces of their Greek case forms in the singular.

Such Greek proper nouns end in **-ā** or **-ē**, feminine, and **-ās** or **-ēs**, masculine. In the singular they are declined as follows:

	Ēlectrā	**Andromachē**
NOM.	Ēlectr**ā** (**-a**)	Andromach**ē** (**-a**)
GEN.	Ēlectr**ae**	Andromach**ēs** (**-ae**)
DAT.	Ēlectr**ae**	Andromach**ae**
ACC.	Ēlectr**ān** (**-am**)	Andromach**ēn** (**-am**)
ABL.	Ēlectr**ā**	Andromach**ē** (**-ā**)
VOC.	Ēlectr**ā** (**-a**)	Andromach**ē** (**-a**)

	Aenēās	**Anchīsēs**
NOM.	Aenē**ās**	Anchīs**ēs**
GEN.	Aenē**ae**	Anchīs**ae**
DAT.	Aenē**ae**	Anchīs**ae**
ACC.	Aenē**ān** (**-am**)	Anchīs**ēn** (**-am**)
ABL.	Aenē**ā**	Anchīs**ē** (**-ā**)
VOC.	Aenē**ā** (**-a**)	Anchīs**ē** (**-a**)

In the plural no Greek forms of declension occur.

THE SECOND DECLENSION — *O*-STEMS

82. The stem of nouns of the second declension ends in **o-**.

domino-, stem of **dominus**, *master*
puero-, stem of **puer**, *boy*
viro-, stem of **vir**, *man*
pīlo-, stem of **pīlum**, *spear*

83. The Nominative Singular. The nominative singular of Latin nouns of the second or **o-** declension ends in **-us**, **-er**, **-ir**, masculine; and in **-um**, neuter.

NOTE. The terminations **-us** and **-um** were originally **-os** and **-om**, and after **u** and **v** these old endings were retained until the Augustan age: as, **equos**, **equom**; **servos**, **servom**.

84. The masculines in **-us** and neuters in **-um** are declined as follows:

	dominus, M., ***master***		**pilum**, N., ***spear***	
	STEM **domino-**; BASE **domin-**		STEM **pīlo-**; BASE **pīl-**	
	SINGULAR			
	CASES	TERMINATIONS	CASES	TERMINATIONS
NOM.	domin**us**	**-us**	pīl**um**	**-um**
GEN.	domin**ī**	**-ī**	pīl**ī**	**-ī**
DAT.	domin**ō**	**-ō**	pīl**ō**	**-ō**
ACC.	domin**um**	**-um**	pīl**um**	**-um**
ABL.	domin**ō**	**-ō**	pīl**ō**	**-ō**
VOC.	domin**e**	**-e**	pīl**um**	**-um**
	PLURAL			
NOM.	domin**ī**	**-ī**	pīl**a**	**-a**
GEN.	domin**ōrum**	**-ōrum**	pīl**ōrum**	**-ōrum**
DAT.	domin**īs**	**-īs**	pīl**īs**	**-īs**
ACC.	domin**ōs**	**-ōs**	pīl**a**	**-a**
ABL.	domin**īs**	**-īs**	pīl**īs**	**-īs**

a. Nouns in **-us** of the second declension have a special form with the termination **-ĕ** for the vocative singular.

85. Nouns of the second declension in **-er** and **-ir** are declined like **dominus**, except for the loss of the terminations **-us** in the nominative and **-ĕ** in the vocative singular.

Thus we have **puer** (for ***puerus**) in the nominative singular; **puer** (for ***puere**) in the vocative singular.

	puer, M., *boy*	**ager**, M., *field*	**vir**, M., *man*	
	Stem **puero-**	Stem **agro-**	Stem **viro-**	
	Base **puer-**	Base **agr-**	Base **vir-**	
		SINGULAR		Terminations
Nom.	puer	ager	vir	(**-us** *lost*)
Gen.	puer**ī**	agr**ī**	vir**ī**	**-ī**
Dat.	puer**ō**	agr**ō**	vir**ō**	**-ō**
Acc.	puer**um**	agr**um**	vir**um**	**-um**
Abl.	puer**ō**	agr**ō**	vir**ō**	**-ō**
Voc.	puer	ager	vir	(**-ĕ** *lost*)
		PLURAL		
Nom.	puer**ī**	agr**ī**	vir**ī**	**-ī**
Gen.	puer**ōrum**	agr**ōrum**	vir**ōrum**	**-ōrum**
Dat.	puer**īs**	agr**īs**	vir**īs**	**-īs**
Acc.	puer**ōs**	agr**ōs**	vir**ōs**	**-ōs**
Abl.	puer**īs**	agr**īs**	vir**īs**	**-īs**

a. With nouns in **-er**, if **e** belongs to the stem (as in **puer**), it is retained throughout; otherwise it appears (as in **ager**) in only the nominative and vocative singular, where it is inserted before the **-r** after **-o**, the stem vowel, has been dropped.

Most nouns in **-er** are declined like **ager**, but the following are declined like **puer**:

1. Compounds in **-fer** and **-ger**: as, **signifer, signiferī**, *standard bearer*; **armiger, armigerī**, *armor bearer*.

2. **Gener**, *son-in-law*; **Līber**, *Bacchus*; **līberī**, *children*; **socer**, *father-in-law*; **vesper**, *evening*; and a few others.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension

86. *Feminine* nouns in **-us** are:

a. Some names of *countries*, *towns*, *islands*, and *trees* (§ 67. *b*).

Aegyptus, *Egypt*
Corinthus, *Corinth*
Rhodus, *Rhodes*
mālus, *apple tree*

b. Some nouns of Greek origin.

arctus, *bear*
methodus, *method*

c. These four nouns:

alvus, *belly*
carbasus, *linen*
colus, *distaff*
humus, *ground*

87. *Neuter* nouns in **-us** are:

pelagus, *sea*
vīrus, *poison*
vulgus, *crowd*

Their accusative singular (as in all neuters) is the same as the nominative and they have no plural, except that **pelagus** has a rare accusative plural, **pelagē**. Rarely **vulgus** is masculine.

Peculiar Case Forms in the Second Declension

88. ***a.*** The locative singular ends in **-ī**, like the genitive.

humī, *on the ground*
Corinthī, *at Corinth*

The locative plural ends in **-īs** and is not distinguished in form from the ablative: as, **Delphīs**, *at Delphi*.

b. The genitive singular of nouns in **-ius** and **-ium** ended in **-ī** (*not in* **-iī**) until the Augustan age, and the accent was on the penult (§ 38. *b*).

fīlī, from **fīlius** (*son*)
praesi′dī, from **praesidium** (*garrison*)

c. The vocative singular of **fīlius**, *son*, and of proper nouns in **-ius** ends in **-ī**, instead of in **-ie**, and the accent is on the penult.

fīlī, *O son*
Vergi′lī, *O Vergil*

In such words, therefore, the genitive and the vocative are alike.

d. The genitive plural sometimes retains the original **-um** (or **-om**) instead of using **-ōrum**, especially in poetry.

deum, **dīvom**, **superum**, *of the gods*
duumvirum, *of the duumviri*
sēstertium, *of sesterces*
nummum, *of coins*

This is the regular form in early Latin, the later **-ōrum** being merely an imitation of the genitive plural of the first declension.

e. The declension of **deus**, *god*, shows several peculiarities. The vocative singular does not occur in classic Latin. In late Latin the nominative is used as a vocative. The plural is declined as follows:

NOM.	deī, diī, dī
GEN.	deōrum, deum
DAT.	deīs, diīs, dīs
ACC.	deōs
ABL.	deīs, diīs, dīs

The forms **diī** and **diīs** are pronounced like **dī**, **dīs**.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE SECOND DECLENSION

89. Greek nouns of the second declension end in **-os**, **-ōs**, masculine or feminine, and in **-on**, neuter. They are mostly proper names, and are declined as follows in the singular (the plural, when found, being usually regular):

	mȳthos, M. *fable*	**Androgeōs**, M. *Androgeos*	**Dēlos**, F. *Delos*	**Īlion**, N. *Ilium*
NOM.	mȳth**os**	Androge**ōs**	Dēl**os**	Īli**on**
GEN.	mȳth**ī**	Androge**ō** (**-ī**)	Dēl**ī**	Īli**ī**
DAT.	mȳth**ō**	Androge**ō**	Dēl**ō**	Īli**ō**
ACC.	mȳth**on**	Androge**ōn** (**-ō**)	Dēl**on** (**-um**)	Īli**on**
ABL.	mȳth**ō**	Androge**ō**	Dēl**ō**	Īli**ō**
VOC.	mȳth**e**	Androge**ōs**	Dēl**e**	Īli**on**

a. A rare genitive in **-ū** (Greek *ou*) sometimes occurs: as, **Menandrū**, *of Menander.*

b. The name **Panthus** has vocative **Panthū**.

c. The termination **-oe** (Greek *oi*) is sometimes found in the nominative plural, and **-ōn** in the genitive plural.

Adelphoe, *the Adelphi* (a play of Terence)
Geōrgicōn, *of the Georgics* (a poem of Vergil)

d. For the declension of Greek names in **-eus** (like **Orpheus**) see § 112.

THE THIRD DECLENSION — CONSONANT AND *I*-STEMS

90. Stems of the third declension are classified as follows:

- I. Consonant stems
  - *A.* Mute stems
  - *B.* Liquid stems
  - *C.* Nasal stems
- II. **I**-stems
  - *A.* Pure **i**-stems
  - *B.* Mixed **i**-stems
- III. Irregular nouns

91. In consonant stems the stem is regularly the same as the base.

In **i**-stems the stem is formed by adding **i-** to the base.

I. CONSONANT STEMS

A. Mute Stems

92. Masculine and feminine nouns with stems ending in a mute (§ 10) form the nominative singular by adding **s** to the stem. Neuters use as nominative the simple stem, dropping the final mute.

93. In forming the nominative singular from the stem the following changes occur:

a. A lingual mute (**t** or **d**) is dropped before **-s**: as, **miles** (stem **mīlit-**), **custōs** (stem **custōd-**).

b. A palatal mute (**c** or **g**) unites with **-s** to form **-x**: as, **dux** (**duc-s**), **rēx** (**rēg-s**).

c. In stems of more than one syllable an original unaccented **e**, retained in the nominative singular (§ 44. *c*), is regularly changed to **i** in the other cases: as, **prīnceps, prīncipis.**

94. Mute stems are declined as follows:

	prīnceps, M.	**mīles**, M.	**lapis**, M.	
	chief	*soldier*	*stone*	
BASES OR STEMS	**prīncip-**[1]	**mīlit-**[1]	**lapid-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	prīncep**s**	mīle**s**	lapi**s**	**-s**
GEN.	prīncip**is**	mīlit**is**	lapid**is**	**-is**
DAT.	prīncip**ī**	mīlit**ī**	lapid**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	prīncip**em**	mīlit**em**	lapid**em**	**-em**
ABL.	prīncip**e**	mīlit**e**	lapid**e**	**-e**
		PLURAL		
NOM.	prīncip**ēs**	mīlit**ēs**	lapid**ēs**	**-ēs**
GEN.	prīncip**um**	mīlit**um**	lapid**um**	**-um**
DAT.	prīncip**ibus**	mīlit**ibus**	lapid**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	prīncip**ēs**	mīlit**ēs**	lapid**ēs**	**-ēs**
ABL.	prīncip**ibus**	mīlit**ibus**	lapid**ibus**	**-ibus**

	rēx, M.	**iūdex**, M.	**virtūs**, F.	
	king	*judge*	*manliness*	
BASES OR STEMS	**rēg-**	**iūdic-**	**virtūt-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	rēx	iūdex	virtū**s**	**-s**
GEN.	rēg**is**	iūdic**is**	virtūt**is**	**-is**
DAT.	rēg**ī**	iūdic**ī**	virtūt**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	rēg**em**	iūdic**em**	virtūt**em**	**-em**
ABL.	rēg**e**	iūdic**e**	virtūt**e**	**-e**

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[1] The original form of these stems was **prīncep-** and **mīlet-**. See § 44. *c*.

		PLURAL		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
Nom.	rēg**ēs**	iūdic**ēs**	virtūt**ēs**	**-ēs**
Gen.	rēg**um**	iūdic**um**	virtūt**um**	**-um**
Dat.	rēg**ibus**	iūdic**ibus**	virtūt**ibus**	**-ibus**
Acc.	rēg**ēs**	iūdic**ēs**	virtūt**ēs**	**-ēs**
Abl.	rēg**ibus**	iūdic**ibus**	virtūt**ibus**	**-ibus**

	cor, N. *heart*	**caput**, N. *head*	**poēma**, N. *poem*	
Bases or Stems	**cord-**	**capit-**	**poēmat-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS NEUT.
Nom.	cor	caput	poēma	——
Gen.	cord**is**	capit**is**	poēmat**is**	**-is**
Dat.	cord**ī**	capit**ī**	poēmat**ī**	**-ī**
Acc.	cor	caput	poēma	——
Abl.	cord**e**	capit**e**	poēmat**e**	**-e**
		PLURAL		
Nom.	cord**a**	capit**a**	poēmat**a**	**-a**
Gen.	——	capit**um**	poēmat**um**	**-um**
Dat.	cord**ibus**	capit**ibus**	poēmat**ibus**	**-ibus**
Acc.	cord**a**	capit**a**	poēmat**a**	**-a**
Abl.	cord**ibus**	capit**ibus**	poēmat**ibus**	**-ibus**

95. Note the following irregularities:

a. The stem **capit-** becomes **caput** in the nominative singular, and does not drop the final mute (§ 92). An ablative **capitī** is found.

b. A number of monosyllabic nouns with mute stems are like **cor** in having no genitive plural. Among these are:

crux, *cross*
fax, *torch*
lūx, *light*
nex, *death*
pāx, *peace*
vas, *bail*

B. Liquid Stems

96. The nominative singular of stems ending in a liquid (**l** or **r**) is the same as the stem. But observe that —

a. Stems in **tr-** have **-ter** in the nominative: as, **pater,** stem **patr-**.

b. Stems in **ll-** or **rr-** lose one of the liquids in the nominative: as, **far, farris**; **mel, mellis.**

c. Stems in **ōr-** have short **o** in the nominative: as, **amor, amōris** (§ 34. *b*).

d. Many stems in **r-** originally ended in **s-**, which still appears in many nominatives: as, **mōs,** *custom*; **flōs,** *flower*. Some nominatives end in either **-r** or **-s**: as, **honor** or **honōs, arbor** or **arbōs.**

In the other cases original **s** regularly became **r** between two vowels (§ 49): as, genitive **flōris** (for **flōsis**), **mōris** (for **mōsis**).

e. Most neuter stems in **er-** and **or-** (originally **es-** and **os-**) have **-us** in the nominative: as, **genus** (stem **gener-**), **corpus** (stem **corpor-**).

97. Liquid stems are declined as follows:

	cōnsul, M. *consul*	**flōs,** M. *flower*	**pāstor,** M. *shepherd*	**māter,** F. *mother*	
Bases or Stems	**cōnsul-**	**flōr-**	**pāstōr-**	**mātr-**	
			SINGULAR		Terminations M. and F.
Nom.	cōnsul	flōs	pāstor	māter	——
Gen.	cōnsul**is**	flōr**is**	pāstōr**is**	mātr**is**	**-is**
Dat.	cōnsul**ī**	flōr**ī**	pāstōr**ī**	mātr**ī**	**-ī**
Acc.	cōnsul**em**	flōr**em**	pāstōr**em**	mātr**em**	**-em**
Abl.	cōnsul**e**	flōr**e**	pāstōr**e**	mātr**e**	**-e**
			PLURAL		
Nom.	cōnsul**ēs**	flōr**ēs**	pāstōr**ēs**	mātr**ēs**	**-ēs**
Gen.	cōnsul**um**	flōr**um**	pāstōr**um**	mātr**um**	**-um**
Dat.	cōnsul**ibus**	flōr**ibus**	pāstōr**ibus**	mātr**ibus**	**-ibus**
Acc.	cōnsul**ēs**	flōr**ēs**	pāstōr**ēs**	mātr**ēs**	**-ēs**
Abl.	cōnsul**ibus**	flōr**ibus**	pāstōr**ibus**	mātr**ibus**	**-ibus**

	tempus, N.	**opus**, N.	**aequor**, N.	
	time	*work*	*sea*	
BASES OR STEMS	**tempor-**	**oper-**	**aequor-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS NEUT.
NOM.	tempus	opus	aequor	——
GEN.	tempor**is**	oper**is**	aequor**is**	**-is**
DAT.	tempor**ī**	oper**ī**	aequor**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	tempus	opus	aequor	——
ABL.	tempor**e**	oper**e**	aequor**e**	**-e**
		PLURAL		
NOM.	tempor**a**	oper**a**	aequor**a**	**-a**
GEN.	tempor**um**	oper**um**	aequor**um**	**-um**
DAT.	tempor**ibus**	oper**ibus**	aequor**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	tempor**a**	oper**a**	aequor**a**	**-a**
ABL.	tempor**ibus**	oper**ibus**	aequor**ibus**	**-ibus**

C. NASAL STEMS

98. The nominative singular of stems ending in a nasal (**n** or **m**) is the same as the stem, with the following slight modifications:

a. Stems in **ōn-** drop **n** in the nominative: as, **legiō**, stem **legiōn-**; **ratiō**, stem **ratiōn-**.

b. Stems in **din-** and **gin-** drop **n** and change **i** to **ō**: as, **ōrdō**, stem **ōrdin-**; **virgō**, stem **virgin-**. So also **homō** (stem **homin-**), **nēmō** (stem **nēmin-**), **Apollō** (stem **Apollin-**).

c. Neuters and a few masculine stems in **in-** (not in **din-** or **gin-**) have the nominative in **-en**: as, **nōmen**, N., stem **nōmin-**; **flāmen**, M., stem **flāmin-**.

NOTE. There is only one stem in **m-**, **hiems** (stem **hiem-**), genitive **hiemis**, *winter*. This nasal stem is peculiar also in adding **-s** to form the nominative singular.

99. Stems ending in a nasal are declined as follows:

	ōrdō, M. *row*	**legiō**, F. *legion*		**nōmen**, N. *name*	
BASES OR STEMS	**ōrdin-**	**legiōn-**		**nōmin-**	
		SINGULAR			
			TERMINATIONS M. AND F.		TERMINATIONS NEUT.
NOM.	ōrdō	legiō	——	nōmen	——
GEN.	ōrdin**is**	legiōn**is**	**-is**	nōmin**is**	**-is**
DAT.	ōrdin**ī**	legiōn**ī**	**-ī**	nōmin**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	ōrdin**em**	legiōn**em**	**-em**	nōmen	——
ABL.	ōrdin**e**	legiōn**e**	**-e**	nōmin**e**	**-e**
		PLURAL			
NOM.	ōrdin**ēs**	legiōn**ēs**	**-ēs**	nōmin**a**	**-a**
GEN.	ōrdin**um**	legiōn**um**	**-um**	nōmin**um**	**-um**
DAT.	ōrdin**ibus**	legiōn**ibus**	**-ibus**	nōmin**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	ōrdin**ēs**	legiōn**ēs**	**-ēs**	nōmin**a**	**-a**
ABL.	ōrdin**ibus**	legiōn**ibus**	**-ibus**	nōmin**ibus**	**-ibus**

II. I-STEMS

100. The original distinction between the declension of consonant stems and that of **i**-stems is shown by the following comparison of case terminations:

	CONSONANT STEMS	I-STEMS
SINGULAR	Accusative (M. and F.) **-em** Ablative (M., F., and N.) **-e**	Accusative (M. and F.) **-im** Ablative (M., F., and N.) **-ī**
PLURAL	Nominative (N.) **-a** Genitive (M., F., and N.) **-um** Accusative (M. and F.) **-ēs**, (N.) **-a**	Nominative (N.) **-ia** Genitive (M., F., and N.) **-ium** Accusative (M. and F.) **-īs**, (N.) **-ia**

This distinction was maintained throughout by relatively few words, the tendency being to displace the **i-** forms by the corresponding forms of the consonant stems. Along with this went a tendency of certain consonant stems to assume **i-** forms in the plural. The **i-** forms which persisted most strongly were:

The ablative singular in **-ī** and the nominative and accusative plural in **-ia** for all neuters.

The genitive plural in **-ium.**

The accusative plural (M. and F.) in **-īs.**

A. PURE I-STEMS

101. Pure **i**-stems are those that have retained some or all of the **i-** forms in the singular and all of them in the plural.

102. Masculines and Feminines — Pure *I*-Stems. Masculine and feminine nouns of this class regularly end in **-is** in the nominative singular, in **-ium** in the genitive plural, and in **-īs** or **-ēs** in the accusative plural. They are declined as follows:

	tussis, F., *cough*	**turris**, F., *tower*	**ignis**, M., *fire*	
	STEM **tussi-** BASE **tuss-**	STEM **turri-** BASE **turr-**	STEM **igni-** BASE **ign-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS M. AND F.
NOM.	tuss**is**	turr**is**	ign**is**	**-is**
GEN.	tuss**is**	turr**is**	ign**is**	**-is**
DAT.	tuss**ī**	turr**ī**	ign**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	tuss**im**	turr**im** (**-em**)	ign**em**	**-im** (**-em**)
ABL.	tuss**ī**	turr**ī** (**-e**)	ign**ī** (**-e**)	**-ī** (**-e**)
		PLURAL		
NOM.	tuss**ēs**	turr**ēs**	ign**ēs**	**-ēs**
GEN.	tuss**ium**	turr**ium**	ign**ium**	**-ium**
DAT.	tuss**ibus**	turr**ibus**	ign**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	tuss**īs** (**-ēs**)	turr**īs** (**-ēs**)	ign**īs** (**-ēs**)	**-īs** (**-ēs**)
ABL.	tuss**ibus**	turr**ibus**	ign**ibus**	**-ibus**

a. Four **i**-stems end in **-er** in the nominative singular. These are **imber**, *rain*; **linter**, *boat*; **ūter**, *skin*; **venter**, *belly*.

b. Declined like **tussis** (acc. **-im**, abl. **-ī**) in the singular, but lacking the plural, are names of towns and rivers in **-is**, and **sitis**, *thirst*.

c. Declined like **turris** (acc. **-im**, **-em**; abl. **-ī**, **-e**) are: **febris**, *fever*; **nāvis**, *ship*; **puppis**, *stern*; **sēmentis**, *sowing*; and a few others.

d. Declined like **ignis** (acc. **-em**; abl. **-ī**, **-e**) are: **avis**, *bird*; **cīvis**, *citizen*; **classis**, *fleet*; **collis**, *hill*; **fīnis**, *end*; **orbis**, *circle*; **ovis**, *sheep*; and a few others.

e. **Messis**, *crop*; **restis**, *rope*; and **secūris**, *ax*, have the accusative singular in **-im** or **-em**, and in the ablative **messe**, **reste**, and **secūrī** respectively.

103. Neuters — Pure *I*-Stems. Neuter pure **i**-stems end in **-e**, **-al**, or **-ar** in the nominative singular. They have **-ī** in the ablative singular, **-ium** in the genitive plural, and **-ia** in the nominative and accusative plural.

a. In the nominative singular the final **i-** of the stem, if retained, is changed to **-e**: as, **īnsigne**, stem **īnsigni-**. But most neuters in which the **i-** of the stem is preceded by **āl** or **ār** lose the final stem vowel and shorten the preceding **ā** (§ 34. *b*): as, **animal**, stem **animāli-**.

104. Neuter pure **i**-stems are declined as follows:

	īnsigne, N. ***decoration***	**animal**, N. ***animal***	**calcar**, N. ***spur***	
STEMS	**īnsigni-**	**animāli-**	**calcāri-**	
BASES	**īnsign-**	**animāl-**	**calcār-**	
		SINGULAR		TERMINATIONS
NOM.	īnsign**e**	animal	calcar	**-e** or —
GEN.	īnsign**is**	animāl**is**	calcār**is**	**-is**
DAT.	īnsign**ī**	animāl**ī**	calcār**ī**	**-ī**
ACC.	īnsign**e**	animal	calcar	**-e** or —
ABL.	īnsign**ī**	animāl**ī**	calcār**ī**	**-ī**

PLURAL

				TERMINATIONS
NOM.	īnsign**ia**	animāl**ia**	calcār**ia**	**-ia**
GEN.	īnsign**ium**	animāl**ium**	calcār**ium**	**-ium**
DAT.	īnsign**ibus**	animāl**ibus**	calcār**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	īnsign**ia**	animāl**ia**	calcār**ia**	**-ia**
ABL.	īnsign**ibus**	animāl**ibus**	calcār**ibus**	**-ibus**

a. Geographical names in **-e** (as, **Praeneste**, **Sōracte**) have the ablative in **-e**. **Rēte**, *net*, has **rēte** or rarely **rētī**.

B. MIXED I-STEMS

105. Mixed **i**-stems are either original **i**-stems that have lost their **i**- forms in the singular, or consonant stems that have assumed **i**- forms in the plural. It is often impossible to distinguish between these two classes.

Masculines and Feminines. Mixed **i**-stems are masculine or feminine.

They are declined like consonant stems in the singular and like **i**-stems in the plural, and have —

-em in the accusative singular
-e in the ablative singular
-ium in the genitive plural
-īs or **-ēs** in the accusative plural

106. Mixed **i**-stems include the following:

a. Nouns in **-ēs**, genitive **-is**: as, **caedēs** (gen. **caedis**), **nūbēs** (gen. **nūbis**).

b. Monosyllables in **-s** or **-x** preceded by a consonant: as, **ars**, **pōns**, **arx**.

c. Polysyllables in **-ns** or **-rs**: as, **cliēns**, **cohors**.

d. The plurals **faucēs**, **optimātēs**, **penātēs**, **Quirītēs**, **Samnītēs**; the monosyllables **fraus**, **līs**, **mūs**, **nix**, **nox**; and sometimes nouns in **-tās** (gen. **-tātis**), as, **cīvitās** (genitive plural generally **cīvitātum**, but sometimes **cīvitātium**).

107. Mixed **i**-stems are declined as follows:

	nūbēs, F.	**urbs**, F.	**nox**, F.	**cliēns**, M.	**aetās**, F.
	cloud	*city*	*night*	*client*	*age*
STEMS	**nūb(i)-**	**urb(i)-**	**noct(i)-**	**client(i)-**	**aetāt(i)-**
BASES	**nūb-**	**urb-**	**noct-**	**client-**	**aetāt-**
			SINGULAR		
NOM.	nūb**ēs**	urb**s**	no**x**	cliēn**s**	aetā**s**
GEN.	nūb**is**	urb**is**	noct**is**	client**is**	aetāt**is**
DAT.	nūb**ī**	urb**ī**	noct**ī**	client**ī**	aetāt**ī**
ACC.	nūb**em**	urb**em**	noct**em**	client**em**	aetāt**em**
ABL.	nūb**e**	urb**e**	noct**e**	client**e**	aetāt**e**
			PLURAL		
NOM.	nūb**ēs**	urb**ēs**	noct**ēs**	client**ēs**	aetāt**ēs**
GEN.	nūb**ium**	urb**ium**	noct**ium**	client**ium**[1]	aetāt**um**[2]
DAT.	nūb**ibus**	urb**ibus**	noct**ibus**	client**ibus**	aetāt**ibus**
ACC.	nūb**īs** (-**ēs**)	urb**īs** (-**ēs**)	noct**īs** (-**ēs**)	client**īs**- (-**ēs**)	aetāt**īs** (-**ēs**)
ABL.	nūb**ibus**	urb**ibus**	noct**ibus**	client**ibus**	aetāt**ibus**

a. **Auris**, *ear*, and a few other pure **i**-stems have lost their **i**- forms in the accusative and ablative singular and are declined like **nūbēs**.

b. **Canis**, *dog*, and **iuvenis**, *youth*, are consonant stems that have assumed some **i**- forms. They have **-em** in the accusative singular, **-e** in the ablative singular, **-um** in the genitive plural, and **-ēs** or **-īs** in the accusative plural.

c. **Famēs**, *hunger*, always has the ablative **famē**.

108. The declension of **i**-stems was unstable at all periods of the language and was confused even among the Romans themselves, early Latin having **i**- forms which afterwards disappeared. Thus an old nominative plural in **-īs** was completely lost. Lost in most words was the accusative singular in **-im**. Somewhat more stable was the ablative singular in **-ī**, while the genitive plural in **-ium** and the accusative plural in **-īs** were retained in nearly all words.

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[1] Rarely **clientum**.

[2] Also **aetātium**.

III. IRREGULAR NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

109. Among the nouns showing irregular case formations are the following:

	senex, M. *old man*	**carō**, F. *flesh*	**os**, N. *bone*	**vīs**, F. *force*	**bōs**, C. *ox*, *cow*
			SINGULAR		
Nom.	sen**ex**	carō	os	vī**s**	bō**s**
Gen.	sen**is**	carn**is**	oss**is**	vī**s** (rare)	bŏv**is**
Dat.	sen**ī**	carn**ī**	oss**ī**	vī (rare)	bov**ī**
Acc.	sen**em**	carn**em**	os	vi**m**	bov**em**
Abl.	sen**e**	carn**e**	oss**e**	vī	bov**e**
			PLURAL		
Nom.	sen**ēs**	carn**ēs**	oss**a**	vīr**ēs**	bov**ēs**
Gen.	sen**um**	carn**ium**	oss**ium**	vīr**ium**	bo**um**
Dat.	sen**ibus**	carn**ibus**	oss**ibus**	vīr**ibus**	bō**bus** (bū**bus**)
Acc.	sen**ēs**	carn**ēs**	oss**a**	vīr**īs** (-**ēs**)	bov**ēs**
Abl.	sen**ibus**	carn**ibus**	oss**ibus**	vīr**ibus**	bō**bus** (bū**bus**)

	sūs, C. *swine*	**Iuppiter**, M. *Jupiter*	**nix**, F. *snow*	**iter**, N. *march*
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	sū**s**	Iuppiter	ni**x**	iter
Gen.	su**is**	Iov**is**	niv**is**	itiner**is**
Dat.	su**ī**	Iov**ī**	niv**ī**	itiner**ī**
Acc.	su**em**	Iov**em**	niv**em**	iter
Abl.	su**e**	Iov**e**	niv**e**	itiner**e**
		PLURAL		
Nom.	su**ēs**		niv**ēs**	itiner**a**
Gen.	su**um**		niv**ium**	itiner**um**
Dat.	sŭ**bus** (su**ibus**)		niv**ibus**	itiner**ibus**
Acc.	su**ēs**		niv**ēs**	itiner**a**
Abl.	sŭ**bus** (su**ibus**)		niv**ibus**	itiner**ibus**

a. Like **sūs** is declined **grūs**, *crane*, except that the dative and ablative plural are always **gruibus**. **Iecur**, N., *liver*, has genitive **iecoris** or **iecinoris**. **Supellex**, F., *furniture*, has genitive **supellectilis**, ablative **supellectilī** or **-e**; there is no plural.

THE LOCATIVE CASE

110. The locative singular for nouns of the third declension ends in **-ī** or **-e**.

rūrī (rarely **rūre**), *in the country*
Carthāginī or **Carthāgine**, *at Carthage*

The locative plural ends in **-ibus** and is not distinguished in form from the ablative: as, **Trallibus**, *at Tralles*.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

111. Greek nouns of the third declension are often entirely regular, but many, especially proper names, show Greek terminations in the following cases:

a. Genitive singular in **-os**: as, **tigridos**.
b. Accusative singular in **-n** or **-a**: as, **basin**, **tigrida**, **aethera**.
c. Vocative singular like the stem: as, **Periclē**, **Orpheu**, **Atlā**.
d. Nominative plural in **-ĕs**: as, **hērōĕs**.
e. Accusative plural in **-ăs**: as, **lampadăs**.

112. Examples of these peculiarities are seen in the following:

	hērōs, M. *hero*	**lampas**, F. *torch*	**basis**, F. *base*	**tigris**, C. *tiger*	**nāis**, F. *naiad*
			SINGULAR		
NOM.	hērō**s**	lampa**s**	bas**is**	tigr**is**	nāi**s**
GEN.	hērō**is**	lampad**os**	bas**eōs**	tigr**is** (-id**os**)	nāid**os**
DAT.	hērō**ī**	lampad**ī**	bas**ī**	tigr**ī**	nāid**ī**
ACC.	hērō**a**	lampad**a**	bas**in**	tigr**in** (-id**a**)	nāid**a**
ABL.	hērō**e**	lampad**e**	bas**ī**	tigr**ī** (-id**e**)	nāid**e**

PLURAL

Nom.	hērō**ĕs**	lampad**ĕs**	bas**ēs**	tigr**ēs**	nāid**ĕs**
Gen.	hērō**um**	lampad**um**	bas**ium** (**-eōn**)	tigr**ium**	nāid**um**
D., A.	hērō**ibus**	lampad**ibus**	bas**ibus**	tigr**ibus**	nāid**ibus**
Acc.	hērō**ăs**	lampad**ăs**	bas**īs** (**-e͡is**)	tigr**īs** (-id**ăs**)	nāid**ăs**

GREEK PROPER NAMES

Nom.	Dīdō	Simoī**s**	Capy**s**
Gen.	Dīdōn**is** (Dīd**ūs**)	Simoent**is**	Capy**os**
Dat.	Dīdōn**ī** (Dīdō)	Simoent**ī**	Capy**ī**
Acc.	Dīdōn**em** (Dīdō)	Simoent**a**	Capy**n**
Abl.	Dīdōn**e** (Dīdō)	Simoent**e**	Capy**ë**
Voc.	Dīdō	Simoī**s**	Capy

Nom.	Orpheu**s**	Pericl**ēs**	Pari**s**
Gen.	Orphe**ī** (-e**ōs**)	Pericl**is** (**-ī**)	Parid**is**
Dat.	Orphe**ī** (-e**ō**)	Pericl**ī** (**-i**)	Parid**ī**
Acc.	Orphe**a** (**-um**)	Pericl**em** (**-ea**, **-ēn**)	Parid**em** Par**im** (**-in**)
Abl.	Orphe**ō**	Pericl**e**	Parid**e** (Par**ī**)
Voc.	Orpheu	Pericl**ēs** (**-ē**)	Pari

Note. The regular Latin forms may be used for most of the above.

a. Like **Simoīs** are declined stems in **ant-** (nominative in **-ās**): as, **Atlās**, **-antis**.

b. In a few Greek titles of books **-ōn** is found in the genitive plural: as, **Metamorphōseōn**, *of the Metamorphoses* (Ovid's well-known poem).

Gender in the Third Declension

113. There are no rules for gender in the third declension that do not present numerous exceptions. The gender of many nouns is determined by the general principles laid down in §§ 64 ff. The most important rules for the others, with their principal exceptions, are the following:

114. *Masculine* are nouns in **-or, -ōs, -ĕr, -ĕs** (gen. **-itis**), **-ex** (gen. **-icis**) : as, **color, flōs, imber, gurges (gurgitis), vertex (verticis).**

Exceptions

a. Feminine are **arbor**, *tree*; **linter**, *skiff.*

b. Neuter are **aequor**, *sea*; **cor**, *heart*; **marmor**, *marble*; **ōs**, *mouth*; **cadāver**, *dead body*; **iter**, *way*; **vēr**, *spring*; and names of plants and trees in **-er** : as, **acer**, *maple.*

115. *Feminine* are nouns in **-ō, -is, -x,** and in **-s** preceded by a consonant or by any long vowel except **ō** : as, **legiō, avis, arx, urbs, nūbēs, cīvitās, virtūs.**

Exceptions

a. Masculine are:

1. **sermō**, *talk*; **cardō**, *hinge*; **margō**, *edge*; **ōrdō**, *order*; **turbō**, *storm*; and nouns in **-iō** denoting material objects: as, **pugiō**, *poniard.*

2. Nouns in **-nis** or **-guis** : as, **ignis**, *fire*; **sanguis**, *blood.* Also:

axis, *axle*
collis, *hill*
ēnsis, *sword*
fascis, *bundle*
fūstis, *club*
lapis, *stone*
mēnsis, *month*
orbis, *circle*
piscis, *fish*
postis, *post*
pulvis, *dust*
sentis, *brier*

3. Nouns in **-ex** (gen. **-icis**), and **grex, gregis**, *herd*, and **rēx, rēgis**, *king.*

4. **dēns**, *tooth*; **fōns**, *fountain*; **mōns**, *mountain*; **pōns**, *bridge.*

5. **ariēs**, *ram*; **pariēs**, *wall*; **pēs**, *foot.*

6. **mūs**, *mouse.*

b. Neuter are **vās (vāsis)**, *dish*; **crūs**, *leg*; **iūs**, *law*; **rūs**, *country.*

116. *Neuter* are nouns in **-e, -al, -ar, -n, -ur, -us** : as, **mare, animal, calcar, nōmen, rōbur, corpus**; also **lac**, *milk*, and **caput**, *head.*

Exceptions

a. Masculine are **tībīcen**, *flute-player*; **vultur**, *vulture*; **lepus**, *hare.*

b. Feminine is **pecus** (gen. **-udis**), *beast.*

THE FOURTH DECLENSION — *U*-STEMS

117. The stem of nouns of the fourth declension ends in **u-**: as, **frūctu-**, stem of **frūctus**.

118. The nominative singular of nouns of the fourth declension ends in **-us**, masculine; or in **-ū**, neuter. In masculines the nominative is formed by adding **-s** to the stem: as, **frūctu-s**, *fruit*. The nominative singular of neuters is the simple stem with **-u** lengthened: as, **cornū**, *horn*.

119. Nouns of the fourth declension are declined as follows:

	frūctus, M., *fruit*		**cornū**, N., *horn*	
	STEM **frūctu-**; BASE **frūct-**		STEM **cornu-**; BASE **corn-**	
	SINGULAR			
		TERMINATIONS		TERMINATIONS
NOM.	frūct**us**	**-us**	corn**ū**	**-ū**
GEN.	frūct**ūs**	**-ūs**	corn**ūs**	**-ūs**
DAT.	frūct**uī (-ū)**	**-uī** (**-ū**)	corn**ū**	**-ū**
ACC.	frūct**um**	**-um**	corn**ū**	**-ū**
ABL.	frūct**ū**	**-ū**	corn**ū**	**-ū**
	PLURAL			
NOM.	frūct**ūs**	**-ūs**	corn**ua**	**-ua**
GEN.	frūct**uum**	**-uum**	corn**uum**	**-uum**
DAT.	frūct**ibus**	**-ibus**	corn**ibus**	**-ibus**
ACC.	frūct**ūs**	**-ūs**	corn**ua**	**-ua**
ABL.	frūct**ibus**	**-ibus**	corn**ibus**	**-ibus**

NOTE. **Cornū**, *horn*; **genū**, *knee*; and **verū**, *spit*, are the only neuters of the fourth declension in common use.

EXCEPTIONS TO GENDER IN THE FOURTH DECLENSION

120. The following nouns in **-us** are *feminine*: **acus**, *needle*; **domus**, *house*; **Īdūs** (plural), *Ides*; **manus**, *hand*; **porticus**, *colonnade*; **tribus**, *tribe*.

Peculiar Case Forms in the Fourth Declension

121. ***a.*** A genitive singular in **-ī** (following the second declension) is common in nouns in **-tus** in early writers. Other early genitive endings are **-uis** and **-uos.**

Thus, **senātī, senātuis, senātuos** occur for the regular **senātūs.** The form **senātī** is found as late as Cicero.

b. A genitive plural in **-um**, following the analogy of **o**-stems (cf. § 88. *d*), is sometimes used, especially by the poets: as, **currum** for **curruum.**

c. In the dative and ablative plural the original ending was **-ubus,** and this is retained in classical times in **arcus** and **tribus.** Some words have both **-ibus** and **-ubus.**

d. The word **domus**, F., *house*, shows forms of both the fourth and second declensions. The locative is **domī** (rarely **domuī**), *at home.* In the other cases it is declined as follows:

dŏmus, F., ***house*** or ***home***

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	domus	domūs
Gen.	domūs, domī	domuum, domōrum
Dat.	domuī, domō	domibus
Acc.	domum	domōs, domūs
Abl.	domō, domū	domibus

Note. The genitive **domī** and the dative **domō** are early forms. The ablative **domū** is rare, and the genitive plural **domōrum** is poetical or late.

e. The nouns **iussū**, *by the command*; **iniussū**, *without the command*; and **nātū**, *by birth*, are found in the ablative singular only.

f. In early Latin the ablative singular ended in **-ūd**: as, **magistrātūd.**

THE FIFTH DECLENSION — *Ē*-STEMS

122. The stem of nouns of the fifth declension ends in **ē-**. The nominative singular is formed from the stem by adding **-s**: as, **diē-s**, *day*.

123. Nouns of the fifth declension are declined as follows:

	diēs, M., *day* Stem **diē-**; Base **di-**	**rēs**, F., *thing* Stem **rē-**; Base **r-**	**fidēs**, F., *faith* Stem **fidē-**; Base **fid-**	Terminations
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	di**ēs**	r**ēs**	fid**ēs**	**-ēs**
Gen.	di**ēī**	r**ĕī**	fid**ĕī**	**-ĕ̄ī**
Dat.	di**ēī**	r**ĕī**	fid**ĕī**	**-ĕ̄ī**
Acc.	di**em**	r**em**	fid**em**	**-em**
Abl.	di**ē**	r**ē**	fid**ē**	**-ē**
		PLURAL		
Nom.	di**ēs**	r**ēs**		**-ēs**
Gen.	di**ērum**	r**ērum**		**-ērum**
Dat.	di**ēbus**	r**ēbus**		**-ēbus**
Acc.	di**ēs**	r**ēs**		**-ēs**
Abl.	di**ēbus**	r**ēbus**		**-ēbus**

Note 1. The **ē-** of the stem is regularly shortened before **-m** in the accusative singular (§ 34. *b*).

Note 2. The **ē-** of the stem is shortened in the genitive and dative singular of **fidēs**, **spēs**, and **rēs** in classical Latin.

Gender in the Fifth Declension

124. All nouns of the fifth declension are feminine except **diēs**, *day* (usually masculine), and **merīdiēs**, *midday* (always masculine). But **diēs** is sometimes feminine in the singular when it denotes an appointed time or extent of time.

cōnstitūtā diē, *on a set day*	**longa diēs**, *a long time*

Peculiar Case Forms in the Fifth Declension

125. *a.* Only **diēs** and **rēs** of the nouns of the fifth declension are declined throughout. Most of them have no plural forms at all, but a few have the nominative and accusative, among which are **aciēs**, *line of battle*; **faciēs**, *face*; **speciēs**, *sight*; **spēs**, *hope*.

b. A genitive and dative singular in **-ē** instead of **-ĕ̄ī** are sometimes found: as, **diē** for **diēī**; and a genitive in **-ī** also occurs: as, **diī** for **diēī**.

DEFECTIVE NOUNS

NOUNS USED ONLY IN THE SINGULAR

126. Some nouns are limited by their signification to the singular. These are especially:

a. **Names of Persons and Places:** as, **Caesar**, **Rōma**. But the plural may be used to indicate two or more persons or places having the same name: as, **Caesarēs**, *the Cæsars*; **Galliae**, *the two Gauls* (Cisalpine and Transalpine) or to define persons as of a certain class or character: as, **Scīpiōnēs**, *men like Scipio.*

b. **Names of Materials:** as, **aurum**, *gold*; **aes**, *bronze.* But the plural may be used to denote *pieces* or *kinds* of material, or *objects* made of it: as, **nivēs**, *snowflakes*; **vīna**, *wines*; **aera**, *bronzes.*

c. **Abstract Nouns:** as, **metus**, *fear*; **fortitūdō**, *courage.* But the plural may be used to denote *instances* or *kinds* of the quality: as, **calōrēs**, *times of heat*; **odia**, *kinds of hatred.* The poets often use the plural of abstract nouns in the sense of the singular.

NOUNS USED ONLY IN THE PLURAL

127. Some nouns are commonly or exclusively found only in the plural. Such are:

a. **Many Names of Towns.**[1]

Athēnae, *Athens*
Pompeiī, *Pompeii*

b. **Most Names of Festivals and Games.**

Olympia, *the Olympic games*
Bacchānālia, *the festival of Bacchus*

c. **Names of Classes.**

posterī, *descendants*
maiōrēs, *ancestors*
līberī, *children*
optimātēs, *the upper classes*
penātēs, *household gods*
Quirītēs, *citizens* (of Rome)

Some names of towns are either singular or plural: as, **Pergamum** or **Pergama**, *Pergamum.*

d. **Words Plural by Signification.** Many of these are translated into English by nouns in the singular.

angustiae, *narrow pass*
arma, *arms*
artūs, *joints*
cibāria, *food*
dīvitiae, *riches*
epulae, *banquet*
exsequiae, *funeral obsequies*
forēs, *double doors*
hīberna, *winter quarters*
Īdūs, *Ides*
indūtiae, *truce*
īnsidiae, *ambush*
Kalendae, *Calends*
minae, *threats*
moenia, *city walls*
Nōnae, *Nones*
nūptiae, *wedding*
reliquiae, *remains*
tenebrae, *darkness*
vīscera, *flesh*

Note. The poets often use the plural for the singular, usually for the sake of the meter, but often for no apparent reason.

ōra (for **ōs**), *face*
scēptra (for **scēptrum**), *scepter*

NOUNS DEFECTIVE IN CERTAIN CASES

128. *a.* **Indeclinable Nouns.** Some neuters are used only as nominative and accusative singular and so appear as indeclinable. These are:

fās, *right*
nefās, *wrong*
īnstar, *likeness*
nihil (**nīl**), *nothing*
opus, *need*
secus, *sex*

b. **Nouns used in One Case only.** Some nouns of the fourth declension are found only in the ablative singular (§ 121. *e*). Also:

pondō, N., *by weight*
māne, N., *morning*
sponte, F., *voluntarily*

Note. **Māne** is used also as an indeclinable accusative.
The accusative plural, **īnfitiās**, *denial*, is used, but only with **eō**, *go*.

c. **Nouns used in Two Cases only.**

fors, F., **forte**, *chance*, nominative and ablative singular.
forās, F., **forīs**, *out of doors*, accusative and ablative plural, used as adverbs.

d. **Defective Nouns used in More than Two Cases.** Most of these are shown in the table on the next page.

e. Most nouns of the fifth declension want the whole or part of the plural (§ 125. *a*).

DEFECTIVE NOUNS USED IN MORE THAN TWO CASES

SINGULAR					PLURAL					MEANING
NOM.	GEN.	DAT.	ACC.	ABL.	NOM.	GEN.	DAT.	ACC.	ABL.	
calx, F.	calcis	calcī	calcem	calce	calcēs		calcibus	calcīs, -ēs	calcibus	*heel*
cor, N.	cordis	cordī	cor	corde	corda		cordibus	corda	cordibus	*heart*
crux, F.	crucis	crucī	crucem	cruce	crucēs		crucibus	crucēs	crucibus	*cross*
	dapis, F.		dapem	dape	dapēs		dapibus	dapēs	dapibus	*feast*
fax, F.	facis	facī	facem	face	facēs		facibus	facēs	facibus	*torch*
	frūgis, F.	frūgī	frūgem	frūge	frūgēs	frūgum	frūgibus	frūgēs	frūgibus	*fruit*
impetus, M.		impetuī	impetum	impetū					impetibus	*attack*
iūs, N.	iūris	iūrī	iūs	iūre	iūra	iūrum[1]		iūra		*right*
lūx, F.	lūcis	lūcī	lūcem	lūce	lūcēs		lūcibus	lūcēs	lūcibus	*light*
mel, N.	mellis	mellī	mel	melle	mella			mella		*honey*
nēmō,[2] C.		nēminī	nēminem							*no one*
nex, F.	necis	necī	necem	nece	necēs		necibus	necēs	necibus	*death*
	opis, F.		opem	ope	opēs	opum	opibus	opēs	opibus	*help*
ōs, N.	ōris	ōrī	ōs	ōre	ōra		ōribus	ōra	ōribus	*mouth*
pāx, F.	pācis	pācī	pācem	pāce	pācēs		pācibus	pācēs	pācibus	*peace*
		precī, F.	precem	prece	precēs	precum	precibus	precēs	precibus	*prayer*
rūs, N.	rūris	rūrī	rūs	rūre	rūra			rūra		*country*
sōl, M.	sōlis	sōlī	sōlem	sōle	sōlēs		sōlibus	sōlēs	sōlibus	*sun*
tūs, N.	tūris	tūrī	tūs	tūre	tūra			tūra		*incense*
vas, M.	vadis	vadī	vadem	vade	vadēs		vadibus	vadēs	vadibus	*bail*
	vicis, F.		vicem	vice	vicēs		vicibus	vicēs	vicibus	*change*

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[1] Rarely found and only in early Latin.

[2] The genitive and ablative singular of **nēmō** are supplied from **nūllus**: namely, **nūllīus, nūllō**.

VARIABLE NOUNS

129. Nouns may vary in declension, in gender, or in meaning.

NOUNS THAT VARY IN DECLENSION

130. A few nouns are partly of one declension and partly of another. Such nouns are called *heteroclites*.

a. Some nouns of four syllables vary between the first and fifth declensions.

māteria or **māteriēs**, *material* **saevitia** or **saevitiēs**, *fury*

b. Some nouns vary between the second and fourth declensions, having a nominative in **-um** of the second declension and another in **-us** of the fourth: as, **ēventum** or **ēventus**, *event*. For the declension of **domus**, *house*, see § 121. *d.*

c. The name *heteroclite* is applied also to nouns that vary between different stems of the same declension.

femur, N., *thigh*, gen. **femoris** or **feminis**
iecur, N., *liver*, gen. **iocineris**, **iocinoris**, or **iecoris**

d. Neuter plural names of festivals in **-ālia** (as, **Sāturnālia**), **ancīle**, *shield*, and a few other nouns regularly of the third declension have the genitive plural in **-ium** or **-ōrum**.

e. Among other heteroclites of frequent occurrence are:

epulum, N., *feast*; plural **epulae**, F., singular in sense.
famēs, F., *hunger*, regularly of the third declension, has ablative **famē** of the fifth.
iugerum, N., *acre*, generally of the second declension in the singular, and of the third in the plural.
pecus, N., *flock*, gen. **pecoris**, etc., has also nom. **pecū**, abl. **pecū**, nom. and acc. plural **pecua**, gen. **pecuum**.
requiēs, F., *rest*, gen. **requiētis**, etc., has also acc. **requiem**, abl. **requiē**. The dative singular and the entire plural are lacking.
vās, N., *vessel*, gen. **vāsis**, etc., of the third declension in the singular; but **vāsa**, **vāsōrum**, etc., of the second declension in the plural.
vesper, M., *evening*, has gen. **vesperis** or **vesperī**, acc. **vesperum**, abl. **vespere** or **vesperō**, loc. **vesperī**, no plural.

NOUNS THAT VARY IN GENDER

131. The following nouns of the second declension are declined as either masculine or neuter:

balteus or **balteum**, *belt*
clipeus or **clipeum**, *shield*
pilleus or **pilleum**, *cap*
vāllus or **vāllum**, *rampart*

132. The following nouns are of one gender in the singular and of another in the plural:

balneum, N., *bath*	**balneae**, F., *bath house*
carbasus, F., *sail*	**carbasa**, N., *sails*
epulum, N., *feast*	**epulae**, F., *feast*
frēnum, N., *a bit*	**frēnī**, M., or **frēna**, N., *bits* or *bridle*
iocus, M., *jest*	**ioca**, N., or **iocī**, M., *jests*
locus, M., *place*	**loca**, N., *places*; **locī**, M., *passages*, *topics*
rāstrum, N., *rake*	**rāstrī**, M., or **rāstra**, N., *rakes*

NOTE. **Balneum** and **epulum** are also heteroclites (§ 130).

NOUNS THAT VARY IN MEANING

133. Some nouns have one meaning in the singular and another in the plural, or are plural in form and singular in sense. Among these are:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
aedēs, F., *temple*	**aedēs**, *house*
auxilium, N., *help*	**auxilia**, *auxiliary troops*
carcer, M., *prison*	**carcerēs**, *barriers* or *stalls* (of a race course)
castrum, N., *fort*	**castra**, *camp*
comitium, N., *place of assembly*	**comitia**, *an election*
cōpia, F., *plenty*	**cōpiae**, *troops*, *resources*
fīnis, M., *end*	**fīnēs**, *borders*, *territory*
fortūna, F., *fortune*	**fortūnae**, *possessions*
grātia, F., *favor*	**grātiae**, *thanks*
impedīmentum, N., *hindrance*	**impedīmenta**, *baggage*
littera, F., *letter* (of the alphabet)	**litterae**, *epistle*, *literature*
locus, M., *place*, *spot*	**locī**, *passages* (in books), *topics*

SINGULAR	PLURAL
mōs, M., *habit*, *custom*	**mōrēs**, *character*
opera, F., *work*	**operae**, *day laborers*
rōstrum, N., *beak* (of a ship)	**rōstra**, *speaker's platform*
vigilia, F., *wakefulness*	**vigiliae**, *watchmen*, *sentinels*

NAMES OF PERSONS

I. NAMES OF CITIZENS

134. In classical times a Roman citizen regularly had three names: (1) the **praenōmen**, corresponding to our Christian, or given, name; (2) the **nōmen**, or name of the **gēns** or clan; (3) the **cognōmen**, or name of the family.

NOTE. Thus, in **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō** we have **Mārcus**, the **praenōmen**; **Tullius**, the name of the **gēns**; and **Cicerō**, the name of the family.

a. The **praenōmina** were never very numerous, and from these the several **gentēs** were in the habit of selecting a few only, which were repeated over and over again. In Latin prose these were regularly abbreviated as follows:

A., Aulus	**L., Lūcius**	**Q., Quīntus**
App., Appius	**M., Mārcus**	**Ser., Servius**
C., Gaius	**M'., Mānius**	**Sex., Sextus**
Cn., Gnaeus	**Mām., Māmercus**	**Sp., Spurius**
D., Decimus	**N., Numerius**	**T., Titus**
K., Kaesō	**P., Pūblius**	**Ti.** or **Tib., Tiberius**

NOTE. In the abbreviations **C.** and **Cn.**, **C.** has the value of **G.** (§ 2. *a*).

b. The **nōmen**, the name of the **gēns** or clan, regularly ends in **-ius**, and is really an adjective derived from the name of the real or supposed founder of the clan.

NOTE. So, according to Vergil, the Julian **gēns** derived its name, **Iūlius**, from **Iūlus**, the son of Æneas. Usually a large number of families belonged to the same **gēns**.

c. The **cognōmina**, or family names, are derived from common nouns or adjectives, applied originally, in many cases, because of some personal peculiarity or occupation, like such English surnames as White, Potter, Miller, etc.

Note. Thus, **Cicerō** is from **cicer**, *a chick-pea*; **Barbātus** signifies *bearded*; **Scīpiō**, *a staff*; **Figulus**, *a potter*; etc.

Later these names continued to be used after their original meaning had ceased to apply.

Sometimes a family in a **gēns** became sufficiently numerous to start a branch or family of its own. In that case both the old and the new family name would be used and there would be two **cognōmina**: as, **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Nāsīca.**

d. Sometimes a Roman was given a name as a mark of honor to commemorate some great achievement, usually of a military character. This name (**agnōmen**) was added to his three regular names.

Note. Thus **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō**, because of his victories in Africa, received the additional name **Āfricānus.**

e. A son adopted into another family took the full name of his adopted father, and added to that the name of his own **gēns** in the form of an adjective with the ending **-ānus.**

Note. Thus, one of the sons of Lucius Æmilius Paulus was adopted by Publius Cornelius Scipio, and thereupon took the name **Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Aemiliānus.**

II. NAMES OF WOMEN

135. Women had no **cognōmen** and, in classical times, rarely a **praenōmen**, but were known only by the feminine form of the name of their **gēns**.

Thus, the daughter of **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō** was **Tullia.** A second daughter would have been called **Tullia Secunda**, a third **Tullia Tertia**, and so on. Or of two daughters the older would be **Maior** and the younger **Minor.** Often the name of a wife or daughter is accompanied by that of her husband or father in the genitive: as, **Caecilia Metellī**, *Cæcilia, daughter of Metellus.*

III. NAMES OF SLAVES

136. A slave was merely a piece of property and had no legal rights. His master, therefore, could give him any name that suited his fancy. Often slaves were given the names of foreign potentates or were named from the country of their origin: as, **Pharnacēs, Syrus** (*Syrian*), **Āfer** (*African*). If set free, a slave usually took the **praenōmen** and **nōmen** of his former master, and added his servile name as **cognōmen.**

Thus, Terence, the famous comic poet, was a slave in his youth and was given the name **Āfer**, from the country of his birth. His master, Publius Terentius Lucanus, set him free and Terence assumed the name **Pūblius Terentius Āfer.**

Note. Sections 134–136 apply to the system of naming employed during the classical period. In later times much confusion arose both in the number and in the order of names.

ADJECTIVES

137. An adjective is a word that describes or limits a noun, and generally denotes *quality*.

bonus, *good*	**malus**, *bad*	**gravis**, *heavy*	**levis**, *light*

138. Adjectives are, in general, formed and declined like nouns, but distinguish gender by different forms of the same word. According to their inflection they are divided into:

I. Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions.
II. Adjectives of the Third Declension.

I. ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

139. Adjectives of the first and second declensions (**ā-** and **o**-stems) are declined in the masculine like **dominus**, **puer**, or **ager**; in the feminine like **domina**; and in the neuter like **pīlum.**

140. Masculine declined like **dominus** (§ 84):

bonus, bona, bonum, ***good***

Stems M. and N. **bono-**, F. **bonā-**; Base **bon-**

SINGULAR

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	bon**us**	bon**a**	bon**um**
Gen.	bon**ī**	bon**ae**	bon**ī**
Dat.	bon**ō**	bon**ae**	bon**ō**
Acc.	bon**um**	bon**am**	bon**um**
Abl.	bon**ō**	bon**ā**	bon**ō**
Voc.	bon**e**	bon**a**	bon**um**

PLURAL

Nom.	bon**ī**	bon**ae**	bon**a**
Gen.	bon**ōrum**	bon**ārum**	bon**ōrum**
Dat.	bon**īs**	bon**īs**	bon**īs**
Acc.	bon**ōs**	bon**ās**	bon**a**
Abl.	bon**īs**	bon**īs**	bon**īs**

a. The genitive singular masculine and neuter of adjectives in **-ius** ends in **-iī** and the vocative masculine in **-ie**; not in **-ī**, as in nouns (§ 88. *b* and *c*).

b. The possessive pronominal adjective **meus**, *my*, has **mī** in the vocative masculine singular.

141. Masculine declined like **puer** (§ 85):

līber, lībera, līberum, ***free***

Stems M. and N. **lībero-**, F. **līberā-**; Base **līber-**

SINGULAR

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	līber	līber**a**	līber**um**
Gen.	līber**ī**	līber**ae**	līber**ī**
Dat.	līber**ō**	līber**ae**	līber**ō**
Acc.	līber**um**	līber**am**	līber**um**
Abl.	līber**ō**	līber**ā**	līber**ō**

PLURAL

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	līber**ī**	līber**ae**	līber**a**
GEN.	līber**ōrum**	līber**ārum**	līber**ōrum**
DAT.	līber**īs**	līber**īs**	līber**īs**
ACC.	līber**ōs**	līber**ās**	līber**a**
ABL.	līber**īs**	līber**īs**	līber**īs**

142. Masculine declined like **ager** (§ 85):

pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, ***pretty***

STEMS M. AND N. **pulchro-**, F. **pulchrā-**; BASE **pulchr-**

SINGULAR

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	pulcher	pulchr**a**	pulchr**um**
GEN.	pulchr**ī**	pulchr**ae**	pulchr**ī**
DAT.	pulchr**ō**	pulchr**ae**	pulchr**ō**
ACC.	pulchr**um**	pulchr**am**	pulchr**um**
ABL.	pulchr**ō**	pulchr**ā**	pulchr**ō**

PLURAL

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	pulchr**ī**	pulchr**ae**	pulchr**a**
GEN.	pulchr**ōrum**	pulchr**ārum**	pulchr**ōrum**
DAT.	pulchr**īs**	pulchr**īs**	pulchr**īs**
ACC.	pulchr**ōs**	pulchr**ās**	pulchr**a**
ABL.	pulchr**īs**	pulchr**īs**	pulchr**īs**

a. Most adjectives in **-er** are declined like **pulcher**, but the following are declined like **līber**:

asper, *rough*	**lacer**, *torn*	**miser**, *wretched*	**tener**, *tender*

Also compounds in -fer and -ger (*bearing*), as, **mortifer** (*death-bearing*), *deadly*, **āliger** (*wing-bearing*), *winged*; and sometimes **dexter**, *right*. In these the **e** belongs to the stem (§ 85. *a*).

b. The adjective **satur**, *full*, is declined **satur, satura, saturum**.

The Nine Irregular Adjectives

143. The following nine adjectives, with their compounds, have the genitive singular in **-īus** and the dative in **-ī** in all genders. Otherwise they are declined like **bonus, līber,** or **pulcher.**

alius, **alia**, **aliud**, *other*, *another* (of several)
alter, **altera**, **alterum**, *the one*, *the other* (of two)
ūnus, **-a**, **-um**, *one*, *alone*; *only* (in the plural)
ūllus, **-a**, **-um**, *any*
nūllus, **-a**, **-um**, *none*, *no*
sōlus, **-a**, **-um**, *alone*
tōtus, **-a**, **-um**, *all*, *whole*, *entire*
uter, **utra**, **utrum**, *which?* (of two)
neuter, **neutra**, **neutrum**, *neither* (of two)

a. The singular of these is declined as follows:

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	nūll**us**	nūll**a**	nūll**um**	ali**us**	ali**a**	ali**ud**
Gen.	nūll**ī′us**	nūll**ī′us**	nūll**ī′us**	(al**ī′us**)	(al**ī′us**)	(al**ī′us**)
Dat.	nūll**ī**	nūll**ī**	nūll**ī**	ali**ī**	ali**ī**	ali**ī**
Acc.	nūll**um**	nūll**am**	nūll**um**	ali**um**	ali**am**	ali**ud**
Abl.	nūll**ō**	nūll**ā**	nūll**ō**	ali**ō**	ali**ā**	ali**ō**

The plural is regular.

b. Note the peculiar neuter singular ending in **-d** of **alius.** The genitive **alīus** (contracted from **aliīus**) is rare; **alterīus**, the genitive of **alter**, or **aliēnus**, *another's*, is commonly used instead.

c. The long **i** of the genitive **-īus** may be short in verse; so often in **alterius** and regularly in **utriusque.**

II. ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

144. Adjectives of the third declension are of the following classes:

A. Adjectives of Three Terminations, having a distinct form for the nominative singular in each gender.

B. Adjectives of Two Terminations, having the nominative singular alike in the masculine and feminine, but a different form for the neuter.

C. Adjectives of One Termination, having the same form for all three genders in the nominative singular.

145. Adjectives of the third declension include both consonant stems and **i**-stems, but all consonant stems (except comparatives and a few other words) have assumed **i**- forms and show the following characteristic terminations:

-ī in the ablative singular;
-ia in the nominative and accusative plural neuter;
-ium in the genitive plural;
-īs as well as **-ēs** in the accusative plural masculine and feminine.

A. Adjectives of Three Terminations

146. Adjectives of three terminations end in **-er** in the nominative masculine singular, and the stem ends in **ri-**. They are declined as follows:

ācer, ācris, ācre, ***keen***

Stem **ācri-**; Base **ācr-**

SINGULAR

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	ācer	ācr**is**	ācr**e**
Gen.	ācr**is**	ācr**is**	ācr**is**
Dat.	ācr**ī**	ācr**ī**	ācr**ī**
Acc.	ācr**em**	ācr**em**	ācr**e**
Abl.	ācr**ī**	ācr**ī**	ācr**ī**

PLURAL

Nom.	ācr**ēs**	ācr**ēs**	ācr**ia**
Gen.	ācr**ium**	ācr**ium**	ācr**ium**
Dat.	ācr**ibus**	ācr**ibus**	ācr**ibus**
Acc.	ācr**īs** (**-ēs**)	ācr**īs** (**-ēs**)	ācr**ia**
Abl.	ācr**ibus**	ācr**ibus**	ācr**ibus**

a. To this class belong the names of the months in **-ber**, found only in the masculine and feminine: as, **Octōber, Octōbris.**

b. **Celer, celeris, celere,** *swift,* in which the second **e** belongs to the stem, is declined like **ācer. Volucer,** *flying,* generally has **volucrum** in the genitive plural.

NOTE. Some adjectives of this type, as **terrestris,** use the feminine forms for the masculine, or, more rarely, the masculine for the feminine. This peculiarity is found especially in early or late Latin and in poetry.

B. ADJECTIVES OF TWO TERMINATIONS

147. Adjectives of two terminations end in **-is** in the nominative singular masculine and feminine, and the stem ends in **i-**. They are declined as follows:

omnis, omne, ***every, all***

STEM **omni-**; BASE **omn-**

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	omn**is**	omn**e**	omn**ēs**	omn**ia**
GEN.	omn**is**	omn**is**	omn**ium**	omn**ium**
DAT.	omn**ī**	omn**ī**	omn**ibus**	omn**ibus**
ACC.	omn**em**	omn**e**	omn**īs (-ēs)**	omn**ia**
ABL.	omn**ī**	omn**ī**	omn**ibus**	omn**ibus**

NOTE. Adjectives of this type sometimes have an ablative in **-e** in poetry, very rarely in prose.

C. ADJECTIVES OF ONE TERMINATION

48. Adjectives of one termination have in the nominative singular the same form for all three genders. This class includes all adjectives of the third declension that end neither in **-er**[1] nor in **-is**. They are by origin consonant stems, but, with few exceptions, have assumed the forms of **i**-stems (§ 145). Typical examples are shown on the next page.

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[1] **Pauper** and **ūber**, adjectives of one termination, are exceptions to this rule.

atrōx, *fierce*
Stem or Base **atrōc-**

egēns, *needy*
Stem or Base **egent-**

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	atrō**x**	atrō**x**	egēn**s**	egēn**s**
Gen.	atrōc**is**	atrōc**is**	egent**is**	egent**is**
Dat.	atrōc**ī**	atrōc**ī**	egent**ī**	egent**ī**
Acc.	atrōc**em**	atrō**x**	egent**em**	egēn**s**
Abl.	atrōc**ī** (-**e**)	atrōc**ī** (-**e**)	egent**ī** (-**e**)	egent**ī** (-**e**)

PLURAL

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	atrōc**ēs**	atrōc**ia**	egent**ēs**	egent**ia**
Gen.	atrōc**ium**	atrōc**ium**	egent**ium**	egent**ium**
Dat.	atrōc**ibus**	atrōc**ibus**	egent**ibus**	egent**ibus**
Acc.	atrōc**īs** (-**ēs**)	atrōc**ia**	egent**īs** (-**ēs**)	egent**ia**
Abl.	atrōc**ibus**	atrōc**ibus**	egent**ibus**	egent**ibus**

dīves, *rich*
Stem or Base **dīvit-**

vetus, *old*
Stem or Base **veter-**

SINGULAR

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	dīve**s**	dīve**s**	vetus	vetus
Gen.	dīvit**is**	dīvit**is**	veter**is**	veter**is**
Dat.	dīvit**ī**	dīvit**ī**	veter**ī**	veter**ī**
Acc.	dīvit**em**	dīve**s**	veter**em**	vetus
Abl.	dīvit**e**	dīvit**e**	veter**e**	veter**e**

PLURAL

	M. and F.	Neut.	M. and F.	Neut.
Nom.	dīvit**ēs**	[dīt**ia**]	veter**ēs**	veter**a**
Gen.	dīvit**um**	dīvit**um**	veter**um**	veter**um**
Dat.	dīvit**ibus**	dīvit**ibus**	veter**ibus**	veter**ibus**
Acc.	dīvit**īs** (-**ēs**)	[dīt**ia**]	veter**ēs**	veter**a**
Abl.	dīvit**ibus**	dīvit**ibus**	veter**ibus**	veter**ibus**

a. Most adjectives of one termination may have either **-e** or **-ī** in the ablative singular and are declined like **atrōx** or **egēns.** The following have regularly only **-ī**:

āmēns, *mad*
anceps, *doubtful*
concors, *harmonious*
ingēns, *huge*
inops, *poor*
memor, *mindful*
pār, *equal*
praeceps, *headlong*

b. Note that **vetus** is declined like a pure consonant stem. Of similar declension are:

compos, *master of*
participes, *sharing*
pauper, *poor*
pūbēs (gen. **-eris**), *adult*
sōspes, *safe*
superstes, *surviving*

NOTE. **Ūber,** *rich,* otherwise like **vetus,** usually has the ablative singular in **-ī.**

c. Most adjectives of one termination have **-ium** in the genitive plural. The following have **-um**: **dīves,** *rich*; **inops,** *poor*; **memor,** *mindful*; and adjectives declined like **vetus** (cf. *b*).

149. Present participles (ending in **-āns** and **-ēns**) are declined like **egēns**[1] (§ 148). When used as participles or as nouns, they end in **-e** in the ablative singular, but in **-ī** when used as adjectives.

Caesare dūcente, *under the leadership of Cæsar* (lit. *Cæsar leading*)
ab amante, *by a lover*
ab amantī rēgīnā, *by the loving queen*

DECLENSION OF COMPARATIVES

150. Comparatives are declined as follows:

altior, ***higher***

STEM OR BASE **altiōr-** (for original **altiōs-**)

	SINGULAR	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	altior	altius
GEN.	altiōr**is**	altiōr**is**
DAT.	altiōr**ī**	altiōr**ī**
ACC.	altiōr**em**	altius
ABL.	altiōr**e** (**-ī**)	altiōr**e** (**-ī**)

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[1] As nouns and in poetry present participles often have **-um** in the genitive plural.

	PLURAL	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	altiōr**ēs**	altiōr**a**
GEN.	altiōr**um**	altiōr**um**
DAT.	altiōr**ibus**	altiōr**ibus**
ACC.	altiōr**ēs** (**-īs**)	altiōr**a**
ABL.	altiōr**ibus**	altiōr**ibus**

a. All comparatives except **plūs** are declined like **altior.**

b. Except for the occasional use of **-ī** in the ablative singular and the rare use of **-īs** in the accusative plural, comparatives are declined like **vetus** (§ 148).

NOTE. The stem of comparatives originally ended in **ōs-**; but the final **s** regularly became **r** between two vowels (§ 49), and so appears also in the nominative singular masculine and feminine by analogy with the other cases. In the neuter, however, the original stem ending **-ōs** (shortened to **-os**) was retained, becoming **-us** in the classical period.

151. The declension of **plūs**, *more*, stem or base **plūr-** (for **plūs-**), is as follows:

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	——	plūs	plūr**ēs**	plūr**a**
GEN.	——	plūr**is**	plūr**ium**	plūr**ium**
DAT.	——	——	plūr**ibus**	plūr**ibus**
ACC.	——	plūs	plūr**ēs** (**-īs**)	plūr**a**
ABL.	——	plūr**e** (rare)	plūr**ibus**	plūr**ibus**

a. In the singular **plūs** is used only as a neuter noun. The compound **complūrēs**, *several*, sometimes has neuter plural **complūria**.

INDECLINABLE ADJECTIVES

152. A few adjectives are indeclinable.

frūgī, *thrifty*   **nēquam**, *worthless*   **necesse**, *necessary*

So also the following pronominal adjectives:

tot, *so many*   **quot**, *how many*
totidem, *just as many*   **aliquot**, *several*

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

153. There are three degrees of comparison: the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

154. The comparative is regularly formed by adding **-ior** (neuter **-ius**), the superlative by adding **-issimus** (**-a**, **-um**), to the stem of the positive, which loses its final vowel.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
altus, *high* (stem **alto-**)	**alt-ior**, *higher*	**alt-issimus**, *highest*
clārus, *bright* (stem **clāro-**)	**clār-ior**, *brighter*	**clār-issimus**, *brightest*
brevis, *short* (stem **brevi-**)	**brev-ior**, *shorter*	**brev-issimus**, *shortest*
fortis, *brave* (stem **forti-**)	**fort-ior**, *braver*	**fort-issimus**, *bravest*
atrōx, *fierce* (stem **atrōc-**)	**atrōc-ior**, *fiercer*	**atrōc-issimus**, *fiercest*
prūdēns, *wise* (stem **prūdent-**)	**prūdent-ior**, *wiser*	**prūdent-issimus**, *wisest*
dīves, *rich* (stem **dīvit-**)	**dīvit-ior**, *richer*	**dīvit-issimus**, *richest*

NOTE. The comparative often has the force of *too* or *somewhat*, and the superlative that of *very*: as, **clārior**, *too bright*, *somewhat bright*; **clārissimus**, *very bright*.

a. Participles used as adjectives are similarly compared.

amāns, *loving* (stem **amant-**)	**amantior**	**amantissimus**
sciēns, *skilled* (stem **scient-**)	**scientior**	**scientissimus**
nōtus, *known* (stem **nōto-**)	**nōtior**	**nōtissimus**

155. Adjectives in **-er** form the superlative by adding **-rimus** to the nominative of the positive. The comparative is formed regularly.

pulcher, *pretty*	**pulchr-ior**	**pulcher-rimus**
miser, *wretched*	**miser-ior**	**miser-rimus**
ācer, *keen*	**ācr-ior**	**ācer-rimus**
celer, *swift*	**celer-ior**	**celer-rimus**

a. **Vetus**, *old*, and **mātūrus**, *ripe*, are compared as follows:

vetus	**vetustior**	**veterrimus**
mātūrus	**mātūrior**	**mātūrrimus** or **mātūrissimus**

156. Six adjectives in **-lis** form the superlative by adding **-limus** to the stem, which loses its final i. The comparative is regular.

facilis, *easy*	**facil-ior**	**facil-limus**
difficilis, *difficult*	**difficil-ior**	**difficil-limus**
similis, *similar*	**simil-ior**	**simil-limus**
dissimilis, *dissimilar*	**dissimil-ior**	**dissimil-limus**
gracilis, *slender*	**gracil-ior**	**gracil-limus**
humilis, *low*	**humil-ior**	**humil-limus**

157. Compounds in **-dicus**, **-ficus**, and **-volus** are compared as follows:

maledicus, *slanderous*	**maledīcentior**	**maledīcentissimus**
magnificus, *grand*	**magnificentior**	**magnificentissimus**
benevolus, *kindly*	**benevolentior**	**benevolentissimus**

Irregular Comparison

158. Several adjectives are *irregular* in comparison.

bonus, *good*	**melior**	**optimus**
malus, *bad*	**peior**	**pessimus**
magnus, *great*	**maior**	**maximus**
parvus, *small*	**minor**	**minimus**
multus, *much*	**plūs** (§ 151)	**plūrimus**
nēquam (indeclinable), *worthless*	**nēquior**	**nēquissimus**
frūgī (indeclinable), *thrifty*	**frūgālior**	**frūgālissimus**

159. The following four adjectives have two superlatives:

exterus, *outward*	**exterior**	**extrēmus** or **extimus** (rare)
īnferus, *below*	**īnferior**	**īnfimus** or **īmus**
posterus, *following*	**posterior**	**postrēmus** or **postumus** (rare)
superus, *above*	**superior**	**suprēmus** or **summus**

a. These adjectives are rare in the positive except when used as nouns in the masculine plural:

exterī, *foreigners*	**posterī**, *posterity*
īnferī, *the gods below*	**superī**, *the gods above*

Defective Comparison

160. Some adjectives lack one or more of the degrees of comparison.

a. **Adjectives without the Positive.**

citerior, *hither*	**citimus**, *hithermost*
dēterior, *worse*	**dēterrimus**, *worst*
interior, *inner*	**intimus**, *inmost*
ōcior, *swifter*	**ōcissimus**, *swiftest*
potior, *preferable*	**potissimus**, *most important*
prior, *former*	**prīmus**, *first*
propior, *nearer*	**proximus**, *nearest*
ulterior, *farther*	**ultimus**, *farthest*

Note. The adjective **propinquus**, *near*, is used as the positive of **propior**.

1. **Potis**, *able*, the positive of **potior**, occurs in early Latin.

b. **Adjectives without the Comparative.**

falsus, *false*	——	**falsissimus**
meritus, *merited*	——	**meritissimus**
novus, *new*	——	**novissimus**, *last* (in order)
pius, *dutiful*	——	**piissimus** (rare)
sacer, *sacred*	——	**sacerrimus**

1. For the comparative and superlative of **novus**, *new*, the forms **recentior** and **recentissimus** are sometimes used. For the comparison of **vetus**, *old*, see § 155. *a.*

c. **Adjectives without the Superlative.** Many adjectives ending in **-ilis** or **-bilis** (as, **agilis**, **probābilis**) have no superlative. Also the following:

adulēscēns, *young*	**adulēscentior**	——
alacer, *active*	**alacrior**	——
longinquus, *long*	**longinquior**	——
oblīquus, *sidelong*	**oblīquior**	——
propinquus, *near*	**propior** (**propinquior**)	——
salūtāris, *healthful*	**salūtārior**	——
vīcīnus, *near*	**vīcīnior**	——

1. The adjectives **iuvenis**, *young*, and **senex**, *old*, are compared as follows:

iuvenis	**iūnior** or **iuvenior**	**minimus nātū**
senex	**senior**	**maximus nātū**

In these superlatives **nātū** is the ablative of respect (§ 478) and is often omitted.

ADJECTIVES NOT COMPARED

161. Some adjectives are not compared. Such are especially:

a. Adjectives denoting material.

aureus, *golden* **ferreus**, *iron* **ligneus**, *wooden*, etc.

b. Adjectives expressing personal relationship.

māternus, *maternal* **frāternus**, *fraternal*, etc.

c. Adjectives expressing relations of time.

hodiernus, *of to-day* **aestīvus**, *of summer* **sempiternus**, *everlasting*, etc.

d. The following special words:

almus, *nourishing*
claudus, *lame*
curvus, *curved*
ferus, *wild*
immemor, *forgetful*
impār, *unequal*
mediocris, *medium*
mīrus, *wonderful*
mūtus, *dumb*
nefāstus, *impious*
rudis, *rough*
vagus, *wandering*

Also most adjectives compounded of verbs or substantives.

ADJECTIVES COMPARED WITH MAGIS AND MAXIMĒ

162. Many adjectives, instead of using terminations, are compared by means of the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **maximē**, *most*, followed by the positive.

This method is especially common with participles, compound adjectives, and adjectives ending in **-us** preceded by a vowel: as, **idōneus**, *fit*, **magis idōneus**, **maximē idōneus**.

NUMERALS

163. The Latin numerals are of two classes: adjectives and adverbs. Numeral adjectives include *cardinals*, *ordinals*, and *distributives*.

a. **Cardinals** answer the question *how many?*

ūnus, *one*	**duo**, *two*

b. **Ordinals**, derived in most cases from the cardinals, answer the question *which in order?*

prīmus, *first*	**secundus**, *second*

c. **Distributives** answer the question *how many at a time? how many each?*

singulī, *one by one*	**bīnī**, *two by two*

I. NUMERAL ADJECTIVES

164. The cardinal, ordinal, and distributive numeral adjectives are shown in the following table:

	Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
1.	**ūnus**	**prīmus**	**singulī**
2.	**duo**	**secundus**	**bīnī**
3.	**trēs**	**tertius**	**ternī, trīnī**
4.	**quattuor**	**quārtus**	**quaternī**
5.	**quīnque**	**quīntus**	**quīnī**
6.	**sex**	**sextus**	**sēnī**
7.	**septem**	**septimus**	**septēnī**
8.	**octō**	**octāvus**	**octōnī**
9.	**novem**	**nōnus**	**novēnī**
10.	**decem**	**decimus**	**dēnī**
11.	**ūndecim**	**ūndecimus**	**ūndēnī**
12.	**duodecim**	**duodecimus**	**duodēnī**
13.	**tredecim**	**tertius decimus**	**ternī dēnī**
14.	**quattuordecim**	**quārtus decimus**	**quaternī dēnī**
15.	**quīndecim**	**quīntus decimus**	**quīnī dēnī**

	Cardinals	Ordinals	Distributives
16.	**sēdecim**	**sextus decimus**	**sēnī dēnī**
17.	**septendecim**	**septimus decimus**	**septēnī dēnī**
18.	**duodēvīgintī**	**duodēvīcēsimus**	**duodēvīcēnī**
19.	**ūndēvīgintī**	**ūndēvīcēsimus**	**ūndēvīcēnī**
20.	**vīgintī**	**vīcēsimus**	**vīcēnī**
21.	**vīgintī ūnus** or **ūnus et vīgintī**	**vīcēsimus prīmus** or **ūnus et vīcēsimus**	**vīcēnī singulī** or **singulī et vīcēnī**
28.	**duodētrīgintā**	**duodētrīcēsimus**	**duodētrīcēnī**
29.	**ūndētrīgintā**	**ūndētrīcēsimus**	**ūndētrīcēnī**
30.	**trīgintā**	**trīcēsimus**	**trīcēnī**
40.	**quadrāgintā**	**quadrāgēsimus**	**quadrāgēnī**
50.	**quīnquāgintā**	**quīnquāgēsimus**	**quīnquāgēnī**
60.	**sexāgintā**	**sexāgēsimus**	**sexāgēnī**
70.	**septuāgintā**	**septuāgēsimus**	**septuāgēnī**
80.	**octōgintā**	**octōgēsimus**	**octōgēnī**
90.	**nōnāgintā**	**nōnāgēsimus**	**nōnāgēnī**
100.	**centum**	**centēsimus**	**centēnī**
101.	**centum (et) ūnus**	**centēsimus (et) prīmus**	**centēnī singulī**
200.	**ducentī**	**ducentēsimus**	**ducēnī**
300.	**trecentī**	**trecentēsimus**	**trecēnī**
400.	**quadringentī**	**quadringentēsimus**	**quadringēnī**
500.	**quīngentī**	**quīngentēsimus**	**quīngēnī**
600.	**sescentī**	**sescentēsimus**	**sescēnī**
700.	**septingentī**	**septingentēsimus**	**septingēnī**
800.	**octingentī**	**octingentēsimus**	**octingēnī**
900.	**nōngentī**	**nōngentēsimus**	**nōngēnī**
1,000.	**mīlle**	**mīllēsimus**	**singula mīlia**
2,000.	**duo mīlia**	**bis mīllēsimus**	**bīna mīlia**
10,000.	**decem mīlia**	**deciēns mīllēsimus**	**dēna mīlia**
100,000.	**centum mīlia**	**centiēns mīllēsimus**	**centēna mīlia**

NOTE 1. The ordinals in **-ēsimus**, as, **vīcēsimus**, **trīcēsimus**, etc., are spelled **vīcēnsimus**, **trīcēnsimus**, etc., in early Latin.

NOTE 2. The plural of **mīlle**, *thousand*, is **mīllia** or **mīlia**. The spelling with one **l** is preferred in Latin of the best period.

165. Numbers above 100,000 are expressed by placing numeral adverbs of multiplication before **centēna mīlia** for the cardinals, and before **centiēns mīllēsimus** for the ordinals.

Thus, 1,000,000 is expressed **deciēns centēna mīlia** (*ten times a hundred thousand*), cardinal; **deciēns centiēns mīllēsimus** (*ten times the hundred thousandth*), ordinal.

DECLENSION OF NUMERALS

166. Of the cardinals only **ūnus**, **duo**, **trēs**, the hundreds above one hundred, and **mīlle** used as a noun, are declined.

a. **Ūnus**, *one* or *only*, is one of the nine irregular adjectives (§ 143) and is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum
GEN.	ūnī′us	ūnī′us	ūnī′us
DAT.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī
ACC.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum
ABL.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō

The plural is regular, and has the meaning *alone* or *only*, unless used with nouns plural in form and singular in sense (§ 133): as, **ūna castra**, *one camp*; **ūnī mōrēs**, *one set of habits.*

b. **Duo** and **trēs** are declined as follows:

	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	duo	duae	duo	trēs	tria
GEN.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum	trium	trium
DAT.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus
ACC.	duōs (duo)	duās	duo	trēs (trīs)	tria
ABL.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus

1. **Ambō**, *both*, is declined like **duo**, but its final **o** is long.

c. The hundreds above one hundred are declined like the plural of **bonus**: as, **ducentī**, **-ae**, **-a**, *two hundred.*

d. **Mīlle** in the singular is regularly used as an adjective and is indeclinable.

mīlle modīs, *in a thousand ways*
cum mīlle hominibus, *with a thousand men*

Mīlle in the plural (**mīlia**) is used as a neuter noun, is followed by the genitive of the objects enumerated, and is declined as follows:

Nom.	mīlia
Gen.	mīlium
Dat.	mīlibus
Acc.	mīlia
Abl.	mīlibus

Examples: **decem mīlia hominum mīsit**, *he sent ten thousand men* (lit. *ten thousands of men*)
castra mīlia passuum tria absunt, *the camp is three miles off* (lit. *three thousands of paces*)

Note 1. The singular **mīlle** is rarely used as a noun in the nominative and accusative: as, **mīlle hominum mīsit**, *he sent a thousand (of) men.*

Note 2. When a declinable numeral follows **mīlia**, the form of expression is as follows: **duo mīlia ducentī mīlitēs**, or **duo mīlia mīlitum et ducentī**, *2200 soldiers.*

167. The ordinals are declined like **bonus**, and the distributives like the plural of **bonus** (§ 140).

Peculiarities in the Use of Cardinals and Ordinals

168. In numbers below 100, if units precede tens, **et** is generally inserted; otherwise **et** usually is omitted: as, **duo et vīgintī**, *two and twenty*, or **vīgintī duo**, *twenty-two.*

169. Compound numerals above 100 generally have the largest denomination first, and the others follow without **et**; but **et** may be inserted between the two highest denominations: as, **mīlle (et) septingentī sexāgintā quattuor**, *1764.*

170. The numerals 18 and 19 are generally expressed by **duodēvīgintī** (*two from twenty*) and **ūndēvīgintī** (*one from twenty*), rarely by **octōdecim** and **novendecim.**

Similarly, the other numerals ending in 8 and 9 are usually expressed by the subtraction of *two* and *one* rather than by the addition of *eight* and *nine* respectively: as, **duodeoctōgintā** rather than **septuāgintā octō**, *78*.

171. When referring to two persons or things, instead of using **prīmus** and **secundus**, Latin generally employs **ūnus** and **alter** respectively.

> **erant duo cōnsulēs, ūnus Cicerō alter Antōnius**, *there were two consuls, one Cicero, the other Antony*

a. The usual Latin expressions for *twenty-first*, *thirty-fifth*, etc., are **vīcēsimus prīmus, trīcēsimus quīntus**, etc.

172. **Ūnus**, when part of a compound number, is used in the singular, and agrees with its noun in gender and case: as, **vīgintī mīlitēs et ūnus**, or **ūnus et vīgintī mīlitēs**, *twenty-one soldiers.*

USES OF THE DISTRIBUTIVE NUMERALS

173. Distributive numerals are used:

a. To express *so many apiece*, *so many at a time*: as, **cēnsōrēs bīnī in singulās cīvitātēs**, *two censors to each state.*

b. To express multiplication: as, **bis bīna sunt quattuor**, *twice two are four.*

c. With nouns that are plural in form and usually singular in sense: as, **bīna castra**, *two camps.*

With such nouns **ūnī**, not **singulī**, is used for *one*, and **trīnī**, not **ternī**, for *three*: as, **ūna castra**, *one camp*; **trīna castra**, *three camps.*

d. With nouns denoting objects that go in *pairs* or *sets.*

bīnī bovēs, *a yoke of oxen*	**bīna hastīlia**, *a pair of spears*

e. By the poets instead of cardinal numbers: as, **quīna armenta** (Vergil), *five herds.*

FRACTIONS

174. Fractions are expressed, as in English, by cardinals in the numerator and ordinals in the denominator. The feminine gender is used to agree with **pars** expressed or understood.

duae septimae (**partēs**), *two sevenths*
quīnque octāvae (**partēs**), *five eighths*

a. When the numerator is *one*, it is omitted and **pars** is expressed with the denominator.

dīmidia pars (or **dīmidium**), *one half*
tertia pars, *one third*
quārta pars, *one fourth*

b. When the denominator is but one greater than the numerator, the denominator is omitted and **partēs** is used with the numerator.

duae partēs, *two thirds*
trēs partēs, *three fourths*

EXAMPLE: **dīmidia pars et trēs partēs et septem duodecimae sunt ūnum et quīnque partēs**, $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{12} = 1\frac{5}{6}$.

II. NUMERAL ADVERBS

175. Numeral adverbs answer the question *how often? how many times?*

1. **semel**, *once*
2. **bis**, *twice*
3. **ter**, *thrice*
4. **quater**
5. **quīnquiēns**
6. **sexiēns**
7. **septiēns**
8. **octiēns**
9. **noviēns**
10. **deciēns**
11. **ūndeciēns**
12. **duodeciēns**
13. **terdeciēns**
14. **quaterdeciēns**
15. **quīndeciēns**
16. **sēdeciēns**
17. **septiēns deciēns**
18. **octiēns deciēns**
19. **noviēns deciēns**
20. **vīciēns**
21. **vīciēns semel**
    semel et vīciēns
30. **trīciēns**
40. **quadrāgiēns**
50. **quīnquāgiēns**
60. **sexāgiēns**
70. **septuāgiēns**
80. **octōgiēns**
90. **nōnāgiēns**
100. **centiēns**

The termination **-iēs** is often used instead of **-iēns**: as, **sexiēs**.

a. The accusative or ablative neuter singular of the ordinals is sometimes used as a numeral adverb.

prīmum, *for the first time*	**secundō**, *for the second time*
prīmō, *at first*	**tertiō** or **tertium**, *for the third time*, etc.

The Roman Numeral System

176. The following characters are used as Roman numerals:

1.	I	15.	XV	100.	C
2.	II	16.	XVI	200.	CC
3.	III	17.	XVII	300.	CCC
4.	IIII or IV	18.	XVIII	400.	CCCC
5.	V	19.	XVIIII or XIX	500.	D
6.	VI	20.	XX	600.	DC
7.	VII	21.	XXI	700.	DCC
8.	VIII	30.	XXX	800.	DCCC
9.	VIIII or IX	40.	XXXX or XL	900.	DCCCC
10.	X	50.	L	1,000.	ↀ, ∞, or CIↃ
11.	XI	60.	LX	5,000.	ↁ or $\overline{V}$
12.	XII	70.	LXX	10,000.	ↂ or $\overline{X}$
13.	XIII	80.	LXXX	100,000.	ↈ or $\overline{C}$
14.	XIIII or XIV	90.	LXXXX or XC	1,000,000.	$\lvert\overline{X}\rvert$

a. The original numerical symbols were representations of the fingers, as, I, one finger; II, two fingers; V, the hand, for *five* (only the thumb and little finger being drawn); and X, the two hands crossed, for *ten*. X, however, is sometimes regarded as an Etruscan symbol for *ten*, the upper half of which was used for *five*. To these original symbols were added the three Chalcidic (§ 2) aspirates, *ch*, Ψ (altered into ↆ, ⊥, L), for 50; *th*, ⊙ (altered into C), for 100; and *ph*, ↀ (broken into ∞, CIↃ), for 1000. The fact that the original numerals I, V, X were identical in form with certain letters of the alphabet no doubt assisted the changes of Ψ to L, and of ⊙ to C, the latter change being favored also by the fact that C was the first letter of **centum.** In a similar way the second half of ↀ, 1000, written D, was used for 500.

b. At an early date **mīlia passuum** (*miles*) was represented by **M·P**, but the separate use of M for the word **mille** or **mīlia** is not found before the second century of our era.

c. While ↀ denotes 1000, the addition of a second circle outside the first makes it mean 10,000 (ↂ), and of a third, 100,000 (ↈ).

d. Toward the end of the Republic the thousands were denoted by drawing a line above the numeral: as, $\overline{\text{V}}$, 5000. By adding lateral lines the numeral was multiplied by 100,000: as, $\overline{|\text{V}|}$, 500,000.

e. The symbols I and X, when placed at the left of a higher number, are to be subtracted from it; but symbols like IIII, VIIII, XIIII are earlier and more usual than IV, IX, XIV. Such symbols as CM for 900, MCM for 1900, are modern. The Romans wrote DCCCC for 900, MDCCCC for 1900.

PRONOUNS

177. A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. Pronouns and their corresponding pronominal adjectives are divided into the following eight classes:

I. Personal
II. Reflexive
III. Possessive
IV. Demonstrative
V. Intensive
VI. Relative
VII. Interrogative
VIII. Indefinite

178. Pronouns have special forms of declension differing in some respects from those of nouns.

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS

179. The personal pronouns are:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERS.	**ego**, *I*	**nōs**, *we*
SECOND PERS.	**tū**, *thou* or *you*	**vōs**, *ye* or *you*

Pronouns of the third person, *he*, *she*, *it*, *they*, are wanting, a demonstrative or relative being used instead.

180. The personal pronouns **ego**, *I*, and **tū**, *thou* or *you*, are declined as follows:

	First Person		Second Person	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs
Gen.	meī	nostrum, nostrī	tuī	vestrum, vestrī
Dat.	mihi (mī)	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
Acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs
Abl.	mē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

a. Emphatic forms of **tū** are **tūte** and **tūtemet.** The other forms of the personal pronouns, except the genitive plural, may be made emphatic by adding **-met** as an enclitic (§ 39): as, **egomet, vōsmet.**

b. The accusative and ablative forms **mē** and **tē** are sometimes doubled, or reduplicated: as, **mēmē, tētē.**

c. The preposition **cum**, *with*, when used with the ablative of a personal pronoun, is added to it as an enclitic (§ 39): as, **mēcum, tēcum, nōbīscum, vōbīscum.**

d. In early Latin the accusative and ablative singular forms were **mēd, tēd.** Instead of **vestrum** and **vestrī** the forms **vostrum** and **vostrī** occur in early and late Latin.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

181. Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the sentence or clause in which they stand: as, *he loves* ***himself***, *we love* ***ourselves***.

182. Reflexive pronouns have no nominative. In the other cases the reflexives of the first and second person are the same as the personal pronouns.

ego mē videō, *I see myself*
nōs nōbīs persuādēmus, *we persuade ourselves*
tū tē vidēs, *you see yourself*
vōs vōbīs persuādētis, *you persuade yourselves*

183. The reflexive of the third person has a special form, the same for both singular and plural. It is declined thus:

GEN. **suī**, *of himself, herself, itself, themselves*
DAT. **sibi**, *to* or *for himself, herself, itself, themselves*
ACC. **sē**, *himself, herself, itself, themselves*
ABL. **sē** (with **ā**, etc.), *from*, etc., *himself, herself, itself, themselves*

a. In the accusative and ablative the reduplicated form **sēsē** occurs. Emphatic forms in **-met** are made as in the personal pronouns (§ 180. *a*). The preposition **cum** is added enclitically to the ablative: as, **sēcum** (cf. § 180. *c*).

b. In early Latin the form **sēd** occurs in the accusative and ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

184. The possessives are pronominal adjectives of the first and second declensions, and are similarly declined (cf. §§ 140, 142). They are:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
FIRST PERS.	**meus, -a, -um**, *my*	**noster, -tra, -trum**, *our*
SECOND PERS.	**tuus, -a, -um**, *thy, your*	**vester, -tra, -trum**, *your*
THIRD PERS.	**suus, -a, -um**, *his, her, its*	**suus, -a, -um**, *their*

a. **Suus** is used only as a reflexive possessive adjective.

> **puer patrem suum videt**, *the boy sees his* (own) *father*

When not reflexive, *his, her*, and *its* are usually expressed by **eius**, the genitive singular of **is**; and *their* by **eōrum**, M. and N., and **eārum**, F., the genitive plural of **is**.

> **puer patrem eius videt**, *the boy sees his* (not his own) *father*
> **puerī patrēs eōrum vident**, *the boys see their* (not their own) *fathers*

b. The vocative singular masculine of **meus** is regularly **mī** (rarely **meus**).

c. Emphatic forms in **-pte** are found in the ablative singular: as, **suōpte**.

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

185. The demonstrative pronouns are **hic, iste, ille, is,** and **īdem.** They are used to *point out* a person or thing, and stand either alone as *pronouns* or with nouns as *pronominal adjectives.*

186. The demonstratives **hic, iste,** and **ille** are used to make a distinct reference to place or time, and are called demonstratives of the first, second, and third person respectively. Thus:

First person, **hic**, *this*, *he*, near the speaker
Second person, **iste**, *that*, *he*, near the person addressed
Third person, **ille**, *that*, *he*, remote from both

187. The demonstrative **is**, *he*, *this*, *that*, refers to objects either far or near, and makes no definite reference to place or time. **Īdem**, *the same*, is a compound of **is.**

DECLENSION OF THE DEMONSTRATIVES

188. **hic**, ***this***, ***he*** — **ille**, ***that***, ***he***

	hic, *this*, *he*			ille, *that*, *he*		
SINGULAR	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	hic	haec	hoc	ille	illa	illud
Gen.	huius	huius	huius	illīus	illīus	illīus
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	illī	illī	illī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hoc	illum	illam	illud
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	illō	illā	illō
PLURAL						
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	illī	illae	illa
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
Dat.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illīs	illīs	illīs
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	illōs	illās	illa
Abl.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illīs	illīs	illīs

NOTE. An earlier form of **ille** is **ollus**, of which several forms occur.

a. **Hic** is a compound of the stem **ho-** with the demonstrative enclitic **-ce**, which in some forms loses its vowel and in others is wholly dropped. The same enclitic is sometimes added for emphasis to forms of **hic** ending in **-s**: as, **huiusce**, **hāsce**, etc.; likewise to certain forms of **iste** and **ille**: as, **istic**, **istanc**, **illaec**, **illōc**.

b. The forms **hoius** (for **huius**), **hoic** (for **huic**), **hīsce** (for **hī**), and **hībus** (for **hīs**) occur in early Latin.

189. **Iste**, *that, he*, is declined like **ille** (§ 188).

190. is, *this*, *that*, *he*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	is	ea	id	iī or eī	eae	ea
GEN.	eius	eius	eius	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
DAT.	eī	eī	eī	iīs or eīs	iīs or eīs	iīs or eīs
ACC.	eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
ABL.	eō	eā	eō	iīs or eīs	iīs or eīs	iīs or eīs

a. The forms **iī** and **iīs** are preferred to **eī** and **eīs**, and are pronounced and sometimes written as monosyllables, **ī** and **īs**.

191. īdem, *the same*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	īdem	eădem	ĭdem	īdem (eīdem)	eaedem	eădem
GEN.	eius'dem	eius'dem	eius'dem	eōrun'dem	eārun'dem	eōrun'dem
DAT.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	īsdem or eīsdem		
ACC.	eundem	eandem	ĭdem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eădem
ABL.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	īsdem or eīsdem		

a. **Īdem** is a compound of the demonstrative **is** with the indeclinable suffix **-dem**. It is sometimes called the identifying pronoun.

b. The plural forms **īdem** and **īsdem** are often written **iīdem**, **iīsdem**, but the pronunciation remains dissyllabic.

V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

192. The intensive pronoun is **ipse**, *self*, and is used either adjectively to strengthen another word or as an emphatic pronoun.

Ipse is compounded of **is** and **-pse** (a suffix of uncertain origin), and is declined like **ille** (§ 188) except that it has **ipsum** in the nominative and accusative neuter singular.

ipse, *self*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
GEN.	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
DAT.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
ACC.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
ABL.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

193. The relative pronoun is **quī**, *who*, *which*, *that*. It is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
NOM.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
GEN.	cuius	cuius	cuius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
DAT.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
ACC.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
ABL.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

a. An old ablative form **quī** (for **quō**, **quā**, or **quibus**) is found, especially in the combination **quīcum**, *with which* or *with whom.*

b. **Quīs** is sometimes used for **quibus** as either dative or ablative plural.

c. Early forms **quoius** (for **cuius**) and **quoi** (for **cui**) continued to be used as late as Cicero.

d. The preposition **cum** is added enclitically to all forms of the ablative: as, **quācum**, **quibuscum** (cf. § 180. *c*).

194. The following are indefinite relatives:

quisquis **quīcumque**	*whoever*
utercumque	*whichever* (of two)

a. In **quīcumque** and **utercumque** only the first part is declined. Poets often separate **-cumque** and its relative (§ 992).

b. Of **quisquis** the only forms in common use are **quisquis**, **quicquid** (**quidquid**), and **quōquō**.

VII. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

195. The interrogative pronouns, substantive and adjective, are:

a. **quis**, *who?* **quid**, *what?* substantive.

b. **quī**, **quae**, **quod**, *what kind of? what sort of? which? what?* adjective.

c. **uter**, **utra**, **utrum**, *which?* (of two persons or things) either substantive or adjective.

196. The interrogative pronoun **quis**, *who?* **quid**, *what?* is declined in the singular as follows:

	M. AND F.	NEUT.
NOM.	quis	quid
GEN.	cuius	cuius
DAT.	cui	cui
ACC.	quem	quid
ABL.	quō	quō

The plural is the same as that of the relative.

197. The interrogative pronominal adjective **quī**, **quae**, **quod** is declined throughout like the relative.

a. **Quī** is sometimes used for **quis**: as, **quī nōminat mē?** *who calls my name?* and **quis**, with words denoting persons, is apparently used like an adjective: as, **quis homō?** *what man?* but the substantive that follows is best regarded as in apposition. **Quī homō?** means *what kind of man?*

b. Early forms of the interrogative are the same as those of the relative (cf. § 193. *c*). The old ablative **quī** is used chiefly as an adverb meaning *how?*

c. The preposition **cum** is added enclitically to the ablative, singular and plural, as with the personal and relative pronouns: as, **quōcum**, **quibus′cum**.

d. The forms of **quis** and **quī** may be made emphatic by adding the enclitic **-nam**.

quisnam, *who, pray?*	**quidnam**, *what, pray?*

198. **Uter**, **utra**, **utrum**, *which?* (of two persons or things) is declined like **pulcher**, except that the genitive singular has the termination **-īus** (**utrīus**) and the dative singular **-ī** (**utrī**). Cf. § 143.

199. Other interrogative pronominal adjectives are:

quālis, **quāle** (declined like **omnis**), *of what kind?*
quantus, **-a**, **-um** (declined like **bonus**), *how great?*
quot (indeclinable), *how many?*

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

200. The most common indefinite pronouns and pronominal adjectives, with the general meaning of *some one, any one, something, anything, some, any*, are shown in the following table:

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
quis, *some one, any one*		**quid**, *something, anything* (substantive)
quī	**qua** or **quae**	**quod**, *some, any* (adjective)
aliquis, *some one, any one*		**aliquid**, *something, anything* (substantive)
aliquī	**aliqua**	**aliquod**, *some, any* (adjective)
quīdam, *a certain person*		**quiddam**, *a certain thing* (substantive)
quīdam	**quaedam**	**quoddam**, *a certain* (adjective)

Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
quivīs **quīlibet** *any one you wish*		**quidvīs** **quidlibet** *anything you wish* (substantive)
quivīs **quīlibet**	**quaevīs** **quaelibet**	**quodvis** **quodlibet** *any you wish* (adjective)
quisquam, *any one*		**quicquam** or **quidquam** *anything* (substantive)
quisque, *each one*		**quidque**, *each thing* (substantive)
quisque	**quaeque**	**quodque**, *each*, *every* (adjective)
quispiam, *any one*		**quidpiam**, *anything* (substantive)
quispiam	**quaepiam**	**quodpiam**, *any* (adjective)

a. Observe that all the indefinites are compounds of **quis** or **quī**.

b. The indefinites **quis** and **quī** are declined like the interrogative and relative pronouns, but usually have **qua** for **quae** except in the feminine nominative plural. The same is true of **aliquis** and **aliquī**.

Note. Occasionally **quis** and **aliquis** are used adjectively and **quī** and **aliquī** substantively.

c. In **quīdam** the **m** in the accusative singular and genitive plural is changed to **n** before **d**: as, **quendam**, **quōrundam**.

d. **Quisquam** has no plural, and the plural of **quispiam** is very rare.

e. The indefinites **ecquis**, *any one* (substantive), and **ecquī**, *any* (adjective), are generally interrogative. They are declined like **aliquis** and **aliquī** (§ 200. *b*), but are rare in the plural.

f. The indefinites have the same early forms as the relative and interrogative (cf. §§ 193. *c*, 197. *b*).

g. For the indefinite relatives see § 194.

201. The relative, interrogative, and indefinite pronouns are originally from the same stems, and most of the forms are the same. The stems in the masculine and neuter are **quo-** and **qui-**, and in the feminine **quā-**. From the stem **qui-** the only forms are **quis**, **quid**, **quibus**, and the old ablative **quī**. The accusative from the stem **qui-** would be **quim**, but, like nouns with **i**-stems, it has borrowed the ending **-em** from the consonant declension.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

202. Several adjectives are frequently used like pronouns and have adopted pronominal forms in the genitive and dative singular. Among these are:

alius, *another* (of several)
ūnus, *one*
uter, *which?* (of two)
alter, *the other* (of two)
nūllus (for **nēmō**), *no one*
neuter, *neither* (of two)

For the declension of these adjectives see § 143.

VERBS

CONJUGATION

203. The inflection of the verb is called its conjugation. Through their conjugation verbs express voice, mood, tense, person, and number.

Voice

204. There are two voices: active and passive, corresponding in general to the active and passive in English.

a. Verbs that are passive in form but active in meaning are called Deponent (§ 247). Semi-deponent verbs are active in meaning, and have active forms in some of the tenses and passive forms in others (§ 248).

Mood

205. There are three moods: indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.[1] These make up what is known as the *finite verb*.

a. In addition, the verb system includes the following non-modal verb forms:

1. Verbal Nouns: infinitive, gerund, and supine.
2. Verbal Adjectives: participles.

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[1] The infinitive is often included among the moods, though it is really a verbal noun both in origin and in use.

Tense

206. The tenses are six in number:

Present	Future	Past Perfect (or Pluperfect)
Past (or Imperfect)	Perfect	Future Perfect

Only the indicative mood has all six tenses. In this mood the past tense is known as the *past descriptive*.

The subjunctive has four tenses: the present, past, perfect, and past perfect. The imperative has two: the present and future.

Person

207. There are three persons: first, second, and third.

Number

208. There are two numbers: singular and plural.

THE THREE TENSE SYSTEMS

209. A verb is inflected by adding certain endings to three different tense stems, known as the Present stem, the Perfect stem, and the Participial stem.

From these stems are derived the three tense systems, known as the Present System, the Perfect System, and the Participial System, which, taken together, make up the whole conjugation of the verb.

1. **The Present System**, derived from the present stem, consists of:

The present, past descriptive, and future indicative, active and passive.

The present and past subjunctive, active and passive.

The present and future imperative, active and passive.

The present infinitive, active and passive.

The present participle, the gerund, and the gerundive.

Note. Observe that from the present stem are derived all the presents, pasts, and futures of the finite verb (§ 205).

II. **The Perfect System,** derived from the perfect stem, consists of:

The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative active.
The perfect and past perfect subjunctive active.
The perfect infinitive active.

III. **The Participial System,** derived from the participial stem, consists of:

The past participle passive, which combines with the forms of the verb **sum** to make:
The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative passive;
The perfect and past perfect subjunctive passive;
The perfect infinitive passive.
The future active participle,[1] and, hence, the future infinitive active.
The supine,[1] and, hence, the future infinitive passive.

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS

210. Regular verbs show four types of inflection, known as the Four Conjugations, which are distinguished by the final vowel of the present stem. This vowel, called the *distinguishing* or *characteristic vowel,* appears before **-re** in the present infinitive active:

Conjugation	Present Infinitive	Present Stem	Distinguishing Vowel
I	**amāre,** *to love*	**amā-**	**ā**
II	**monēre,** *to advise*	**monē-**	**ē**
III	**regere,** *to rule*	**regĕ-**	**ĕ**
IV	**audīre,** *to hear*	**audī-**	**ī**

211. Verbs which do not conform to one of the four regular conjugations are called Irregular Verbs (cf. §§ 251 ff.).

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[1] These forms are most conveniently associated with the participial stem, though strictly of different origin.

PRINCIPAL PARTS

212. Certain forms of the verb, which show its conjugation and its stems, are called its Principal Parts. These are the present indicative active, first person singular; the present infinitive active; the perfect indicative active, first person singular; the past participle passive, nominative singular masculine.

amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus, *love*

a. The present stem may be found by dropping **-re** from the present infinitive active: as, **amā-** from **amā|re**.

b. The perfect stem may be found by dropping **-ī** from the perfect indicative active, first person singular: as, **amāv-** from **amāv|ī**.

c. The participial stem may be found by dropping **-us** from the past participle passive, nominative singular masculine: as, **amāt-** from **amāt|us**.

Note. In giving the principal parts of intransitive verbs the neuter of the past participle passive should be given instead of the masculine.[1]

veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventum, *come*

If the past participle passive is wanting, the future participle active (from the same stem) may be given.

fugiō, fugĕre, fūgī, fugitūrus, *flee*

213. In the passive voice there are three principal parts: the present indicative passive, first person singular; the present infinitive passive; and the perfect indicative passive, first person singular: as, **amor, amārī, amātus sum**.

214. The conjugation to which a verb is referred is determined by its present infinitive, no matter how irregular its principal parts may be. For example, **domō, domāre, domuī, domitus** is referred to the first conjugation; and **petō, petere, petīvī, petītus** to the third.

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[1] As intransitive verbs are used only impersonally in the passive, their past participle is always neuter.

PERSONAL ENDINGS

215. The person of the verb is indicated, for each of the three persons, both singular and plural, active and passive, by regular terminations, known as *personal endings.* Most of these seem to be remnants or fragments of old pronouns whose signification is thus added to that of the verb stem.

216. The personal endings of the indicative (except in the perfect active) and of the subjunctive are as follows:

Person	Active		Passive	
		SINGULAR		
1	**-m** or **-ō**	su**m**, *I am* am**ō**, *I love*	**-r**	amo**r**, *I am loved*
2	**-s**	amā**s**, *you love*	**-ris** or **-re**	amā**ris** amā**re** *you are loved*
3	**-t**	ama**t**, *he, she, it loves*	**-tur**	amā**tur**, *he, she, it is loved*
		PLURAL		
1	**-mus**	amā**mus**, *we love*	**-mur**	amā**mur**, *we are loved*
2	**-tis**	amā**tis**, *you love*	**-minī**	amā**minī**, *you are loved*
3	**-nt**	ama**nt**, *they love*	**-ntur**	ama**ntur**, *they are loved*

a. A long vowel is regularly shortened before final **m**, **t**, or **r**, or before **nt** (cf. § 34. *b*).

b. Observe that the letter **r** appears in all but one of the passive personal endings. This is sometimes called the *passive sign.*

217. The perfect indicative active indicates the person by the following terminations, of doubtful origin:

Person		Singular
1	**-ī**	amāv**ī**, *I have loved*
2	**-istī**	amāv**istī**, *you have loved.*
3	**-it**	amāv**it**, *he, she, it has loved*

PERSON		PLURAL
1	**-imus**	amāv**imus**, *we have loved*
2	**-istis**	amāv**istis**, *you have loved*
3	**-ērunt** or **-ēre**	amāv**ērunt** or **-ēre**, *they have loved*

218. The imperative has the following terminations, of uncertain origin:

PERSON		SINGULAR		PLURAL
		PRESENT ACTIVE		
2	—	amā, *love thou*	**-te**	amā**te**, *love ye*
		FUTURE ACTIVE		
2	**-tō**	amā**tō**, *thou shalt love*	**-tōte**	amā**tōte**, *ye shall love*
3	**-tō**	amā**tō**, *he, she, it shall love*	**-ntō**	ama**ntō**, *they shall love*
		PRESENT PASSIVE		
2	**-re**	amā**re**, *be thou loved*	**-minī**	amā**minī**, *be ye loved*
		FUTURE PASSIVE		
2	**-tor**	amā**tor**, *thou shalt be loved*	——	——
3	**-tor**	amā**tor**, *he, she, it shall be loved*	**-ntor**	ama**ntor**, *they shall be loved*

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS

THE PRESENT STEM

219. The present stem may be found by dropping **-re** in the present infinitive active: as, **amā-** from **amāre**.

220. In the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations the present stem ends in a long vowel.

NOTE. Sometimes the root ends in a long vowel, and the present stem and the root are identical: as, **stā-**, present stem and root of **stāre**, *stand.* But generally the final vowel of the root, or of a noun or adjective stem, has been contracted with a formative verb suffix.

a. **First Conjugation.** The stem vowel is **ā-**.

Most verbs of the first conjugation are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives. The **ā-** of the present stem generally appears also in the perfect and participial stems: as, **amāvī**, **amātus**.

b. **Second Conjugation.** The stem vowel is **ē-**.

In most verbs of the second conjugation the stem vowel **ē-** appears only in the present system. The long stem vowel **ē-** is shortened before another vowel (§ 34. *b*): as, **monĕō**. Some of these verbs are formed directly from the root, but most of them are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives.

c. **Fourth Conjugation.** The stem vowel is **ī-**.

The long stem vowel **ī-** is shortened before another vowel (§ 34. *b*): as, **audĭō**. These verbs are formed from the root or derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives.

1. The **ī-**, in verbs formed from the root, usually appears only in the present system: as, **veniō**, **venīre**, **vēnī**, **ventum**, *come*, from the root **ven-**.

2. If the verbs are derived from the stems of nouns and adjectives, the **ī-** appears also in the perfect and participial systems: as, **fīniō**, **fīnīre**, **fīnīvī**, **fīnītus**, *finish*, from **fīni-**, stem of **fīnis**, *end.*

221. In the Third Conjugation the present stem ends in a short vowel, **e-** or **o-**,[1] changed in most forms to **i-** or **u-**. In most cases this vowel, known as the *thematic vowel*,[2] is added directly to the unmodified root: as, **dīc**$^{e}/_{o}$-, present stem of **dīcō**, *speak*. Often, however, various stem elements are added to the root, and sometimes the root itself is changed.

Thus arise seven different kinds of formation of the present stem, making the following seven classes[3] of verbs:

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[1] The variation of the stem vowel between **e-** and **o-** is caused by *ablaut* (§ 56), and its variable character is generally indicated by writing it $^{e}/_{o}$ (or, as it usually appears, $^{i}/_{u}$).

[2] The thematic vowel, appearing between the root and the personal endings, is a part of the stem but not of the root. Its origin is unknown.

[3] In the first five classes the stem endings added to the root are, respectively, $^{e}/_{o}$ (the thematic vowel), **y**$^{e}/_{o}$, **n**$^{e}/_{o}$, **t**$^{e}/_{o}$, **sc**$^{e}/_{o}$. In classes 6 and 7 the thematic vowel is added directly to the root, but the root itself is changed.

a. The root class: as, **dīc-ō**, *speak*; root **dīc-**.

b. The **-iō** class: as, **cap-iō**, *take*; root **cap-**.

c. The **-nō** class: as, **tem-nō**, *despise*; root **tem-**.

d. The **-tō** class: as, **flec-tō**, *bend*; root **flec-**.

e. The **-scō** class: as, **crē-scō**, *grow*; root **crē-**.

f. The reduplicating class: as, **gi-gn-ō**, *bear*; root **gen-** or **gn-**.

g. The nasal class: as, **iu-n-g-ō**, *join*; root **iug-**.

1. In the reduplicating class the root is changed by reduplication; that is, by prefixing its first consonant with **i**.

2. In the nasal class a nasal (**m** or **n**) is inserted before the final consonant of the simple root, and usually appears only in the present system.

THE PERFECT STEM

222. The perfect stem may be found by dropping **-ī** from the first person singular of the perfect indicative active.

223. The perfect stem is formed in various ways:

a. The suffix **-v-** is added to the present stem.

This formation is common to most verbs of the first and fourth conjugations.

vocā-v-ī, from **vocāre**, *call*　　**audī-v-ī**, from **audīre**, *hear*

b. The suffix **-v-** is added to the root, or to a modified form of the root ending in a long vowel.

This formation is found in several verbs of the second and third conjugations.

flē-v-ī, from **flēre**, *weep*; root **flē-**
strā-v-ī, from **sternere**, *strew*; root **ster-**, modified root **strā-**
nō-v-ī, from **nōscere**, *know*; root **gno-**, modified root **nō-**
lē-v-ī, from **linere**, *smear*; root **li-**, modified root **lē-**

c. The suffix **-u-** is added to the root or to a modified form of it.

This formation is common to most verbs of the second conjugation, and also appears in some verbs of the third and (rarely) of the first and fourth conjugations.

mon-u-ī, from **monēre**, *advise*; root **man-**, modified root **mon-**
col-u-ī, from **colere**, *till*; root **col-**
vet-u-ī, from **vetāre**, *forbid*; root **vet-**
aper-u-ī, from **aperīre**, *open*; preposition **ab** + root **par-**, modified root **per-**

NOTE. The suffix **-u-** is in reality the same as the suffix **-v-**, the Latin having but one character for both the vowel and the consonant (§2. *b*).

d. The suffix **-s-** is added to the root.

This formation is common to verbs of the third conjugation having roots ending in a mute (cf. § 10). It often appears also in the second conjugation and occasionally in the fourth.

The combination of the final mute and **s** gives rise to various consonant changes (cf. § 50), and the quantity of the vowel in the root syllable of the perfect and of the present is sometimes not the same.

rēx-ī, from **regere**, *rule*; root **reg-**
mī-s-ī, from **mittere**, *send*; root **mit-**
ār-s-ī, from **ārdēre**, *burn*; root **ār-**, modified root **ārd-**
sēn-s-ī, from **sentīre**, *feel*; root **sent-**

e. The root is *reduplicated* by prefixing the first consonant, generally with **ĕ**, sometimes with the root vowel. An **a** in the root syllable is weakened to **i** or **e**, and an **ae** to **ī** (cf. § 44).

This formation is found only in the third conjugation, in **mordeō**, **pendeō**, **spondeō**, and **tondeō** of the second conjugation, and in **dō** and **stō**. Examples are:

ce-cid-ī, from **cadere**, *fall*; root **cad-**
ce-cīd-ī, from **caedere**, *cut*; root **caed-**
te-tig-ī, from **tangere**, *touch*; root **tag-**
to-tond-ī, from **tondēre**, *shear*; root **tond-**

1. In compounds the reduplicated syllable usually disappears: as, **incidī**, perfect of **incidō** (compound of **cadō**); **contigī**, perfect of **contingō** (compound of **tangō**).

2. When the verb begins with **sp** or **st**, both consonants appear in the reduplication, but **s** disappears from the root: as, **stetī** (for ***ste-stī**), perfect of **stō**.

f. The vowel of the root syllable is lengthened or changed.

This formation is confined mostly to verbs of the second and third conjugations.

mōv-ī, from **movēre**, *move*; root **mov-**
fēc-ī, from **facere**, *make*; root **fac-**
ēg-ī, from **agere**, *drive*; root **ag-**
vēn-ī, from **venīre**, *come*; root **ven-**

g. Sometimes the perfect stem has the same form that appears in the present.

This formation is common in the third conjugation, and occurs in nearly all verbs ending in **-uō**.

vert-ī, from **vertere**, *turn*
solv-ī, from **solvere**, *loosen*
metu-ī, from **metuere**, *fear*
tribu-ī, from **tribuere**, *assign*

224. The rules in § 223 may be summarized by the statement that, in general, the perfect stem is formed by adding a suffix to the root or present stem, by reduplication, or by changing the root vowel.

The Participial Stem

225. The participial stem may be found by dropping **-us** or **-um** from the nominative of the past participle, or **-um** from the supine.

226. The participial stem is formed by adding **-t-** or **-s-**:

a. To the present stem.

amā-t-, from **amāre**, *love*
dēlē-t-, from **dēlēre**, *destroy*
audī-t-, from **audīre**, *hear*

b. To the root, with or without an intervening **-i-**.

cap-t-, from **capere**, *take*
mon-i-t-, from **monēre**, *advise*

The addition of the suffix leads to many consonant changes, for which see §§ 48, 54. *a*. The vowel of the root syllable is generally the same as in the present.

NOTE. Verbs in **-uō** form the participial stem by adding **-ūt-** to the root syllable.

stat-ūt-, from **statuere**, *set*	**trib-ūt-**, from **tribuere**, *assign*

FORMATION OF THE MOODS AND TENSES

227. The different moods and tenses are, as a rule, distinguished by certain formative signs, known as mood signs or tense signs, which precede the personal endings. Long vowels are regularly shortened before another vowel, before a final **m**, **r**, or **t**, and before **nt** or **nd** (cf. § 34. *b*).

INDICATIVE MOOD

228. The tenses of the indicative mood are the present, past descriptive, future, perfect, past perfect, and future perfect.

229. The present, past descriptive, and future are formed from the present stem as follows:

a. The **Present Indicative** has no tense sign, the personal endings being added directly to the stem. Thus, from the present stem **arā-** are formed **arā-s**, **arā-tis**, etc.

1. In the first conjugation the stem vowel **ā-** disappears in the first person singular by contraction: as, **amō**, for ***amā-ō**.

2. In the third conjugation the thematic vowel $^{e}/_{o}$ (§ 221) disappears in the first person singular by contraction (as, **regō** for ***reg-e-ō**); appears as **e** before **r** (as, **reg-e-ris**); appears as **u** before **nt** (as, **reg-u-nt**); and becomes **i** before all the other personal endings (as, **reg-i-s**, **reg-i-t**).

3. In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as **u** in the third person plural between the stem and the personal ending: as, **audi-u-nt**.

b. The **Past Descriptive Indicative** adds **-bā-** as a tense sign to the present stem: as, **amā-bā-s.**

1. In the third conjugation the stem vowel appears as **ē-**: as, **regē-ba-m.**

2. In the fourth conjugation **ē** generally occurs between the stem and the tense sign: as, **audi-ē-ba-m.** This is the regular form in classical Latin. The earlier formation is without **ē**: as, **audī-ba-m.**

c. The **Future Indicative** in the first and second conjugations has as a tense sign **-b** + the thematic vowel $^{i}/_{u}$ (changed from $^{e}/_{o}$ except in the first person singular). This is added to the present stem: as, **amā-bō, amā-bi-s, monē-bu-nt.**

In the third and fourth conjugations the tense sign is **-ā-** in the first person singular and **-ē-** in the remaining forms. In the third conjugation the tense signs take the place of the stem vowel, but not in the fourth: as, **reg-a-m, reg-ē-mus, audi-a-m, audi-ē-mus.**

NOTE 1. The tense signs **-ā-** and **-ē-** are really subjunctive mood signs, and futures so formed are in origin present subjunctives.

NOTE 2. In early Latin a future in **-bō** is found also in verbs of the fourth conjugation: as, **scībō,** for **sciam**; **audībō,** for **audiam.**

230. The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect indicative active are formed from the perfect stem as follows:

a. The **Perfect Indicative** is formed by adding the endings of the perfect (cf. § 217) to the perfect stem (cf. § 222).

1. Perfects in **-āvī, -ēvī,** and **-ōvī,** and also other tenses formed from similar perfect stems, sometimes lose **v** and its following vowel before **s** or **r.**

amāstī, for **amāvistī**	**commōrat,** for **commōverat**
dēlērunt, for **dēlēvērunt**	**nōstī,** for **nōvistī**

2. Perfects in **-īvī** often omit **v,** but the following vowel is not dropped except before **s.**

audiit, for **audīvit**	**audiērunt,** for **audīvērunt**
audīstī, for **audīvistī**	**petīstis,** for **petīvistis**

b. The **Past Perfect Indicative** adds **-erā-** as a tense sign to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-era-m.**

c. The **Future Perfect Indicative** has as a tense sign **-er** + the thematic vowel $^{\mathrm{i}}/_{\mathrm{u}}$ (changed from $^{\mathrm{e}}/_{\mathrm{o}}$ except in the first person singular). This is added to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-erō**, **amāv-eri-s.** The third person plural, however, ends in **-int** (not in **-unt**) in imitation of the perfect subjunctive.

NOTE 1. The same imitation has given rise to occasional forms of the second person singular and first and second person plural in **-īs**, **-īmus**, **-ītis**, instead of **-is**, **-imus**, **-itis**, the forms with **ī** being original in the perfect subjunctive.

NOTE 2. In early Latin the future perfect indicative sometimes has forms in **-sō** or **-ssō**: as, **faxō** (**fac-sō**), from **faciō**; **capsō**, from **capiō**; **amāssō**, from **amō**.

231. The **Perfect Indicative Passive** and all other passive tenses of the perfect system are formed by combining the past participle with present, past descriptive, and future forms of the auxiliary verb **esse**, *be*: as, **amātus sum**, **amātus eram**, **amātus erō**, **amātus sim**, **amātus esse**, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

232. The tenses of the subjunctive mood are the present, past, perfect, and past perfect. Long vowels are shortened before a final **m**, **r**, or **t**, and before **nt** or **nd**, as in the indicative (cf. § 34. *b*).

233. The present and past subjunctive are formed from the present stem as follows:

a. The **Present Subjunctive** has the mood sign **-ē-** in the first conjugation and **-ā-** in the others. The mood sign takes the place of the final stem vowel in the first and third conjugations, but not in the second and fourth: as, **am-e-m**, **mone-ā-mus**, **reg-ā-s**, **audi-ā-tis.**

1. Many irregular verbs have **-ī-** for a present subjunctive mood sign: as, **s-i-m**, **vel-ī-mus**, **du-i-nt**, **ed-ī-s.**

b. The **Past Subjunctive** adds the mood sign **-sē-** to the present stem, the **s** becoming **r** between two vowels (cf. § 49): as, **es-sē-mus**, **monē-rē-s.**

234. The perfect and past perfect subjunctive active are formed from the perfect stem as follows:

a. The **Perfect Subjunctive Active** adds the tense sign **-erĭ-** to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-eri-m, amāv-erĭ-s.**

1. The **i** of the mood sign, originally long, is often shortened through confusion with the future perfect indicative (cf. § 230. *c.* N. 1). Except in the first person singular the Romans did not maintain a clear distinction between these two tenses.

NOTE 1. In early Latin a perfect subjunctive appears with the ending **-sim**: as, **faxim** (**fac-sim**), from **faciō**; **ausim**, from **audeō.**

NOTE 2. For the passive see § 231.

b. The **Past Perfect Subjunctive Active** adds the tense sign **-issē-** to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-issē-s, dīx-isse-m.**

NOTE. For the passive see § 231.

IMPERATIVE MOOD

235. The imperative mood has neither mood sign nor tense signs. Its forms are made by adding its characteristic endings (cf. § 218) to the present stem: as, **amā-te, mone-ntō.**

a. In the third conjugation the final vowel of the stem (the thematic vowel, § 221) appears as **ĕ** in the second person singular, and elsewhere as in the present indicative: as, **rege**, **regi-tō.**

b. In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as **u** between the stem and the ending in the third person plural of the future imperative, just as in the third person plural of the present indicative (cf. § 229. *a.* 3): as, **audi-u-ntō.**

c. Four verbs, **dīcō**, **dūcō**, **faciō**, and **ferō**, drop the final vowel in the singular of the present active imperative, making **dīc**, **dūc**, **fac**, and **fer.**

But prepositional compounds of **faciō** retain the final vowel: as, **cōnfice** from **cōnficiō.**

NOTE. In early Latin **dīce**, **dūce**, and **face** are more frequent than the shortened forms.

FORMATION OF THE NON-MODAL VERB FORMS

236. The non-modal verb forms are the infinitive, gerund, supine, and participle.

237. The infinitive has three tenses: present, perfect, and future, active and passive.

a. 1. The **Present Infinitive Active** is formed by adding **-se** to the present stem: as, **es-se**, *be.* But when the **s** of this ending comes between two vowels, it is regularly changed to **r** (cf. § 49): as, **amā-re**, for **amā-se**; **monē-re**, for **monē-se.**

2. The **Present Infinitive Passive** is formed by adding **-rī** to the present stem in all conjugations but the third, where **-ī** is added to the root syllable: as, **amā-rī**, **monē-rī**, **audī-rī**, but **reg-ī.**

Note. In early Latin and in poetry a present infinitive passive occurs ending in **-ier**: as, **amārier, monērier, regier, audīrier.**

b. 1. The **Perfect Infinitive Active** is formed by adding **-isse** to the perfect stem: as, **amāv-isse, monu-isse, rēx-isse, audīv-isse.**

2. The **Perfect Infinitive Passive** consists of the past participle with **esse**: as, **amātus esse, monitus esse.** But **esse** is often omitted.

c. 1. The **Future Infinitive Active** consists of the forms of the future active participle with **esse**: as, **amātūrus esse.** But **esse** is very often omitted.

2. The **Future Infinitive Passive** consists of the supine in **-um** with **īrī** (the present infinitive passive of **eō**, *go*): as, **amātum īrī, rēctum īrī.**

238. The **Gerund** is a neuter verbal noun,[1] corresponding in meaning to the English verbal noun in *-ing*: as, **loquendī causā,** *for the sake of speaking.* It is found only in the oblique cases of the singular, and may be formed by adding **-ndī** to the present stem: as, **ama-ndī, mone-ndī, rege-ndī.** In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as **e** between the stem and the ending: as, **audi-e-ndī.**

Note. In early Latin **-undī** is often used for **-endī** in the third and fourth conjugations: as, **faciundī, audiundī.**

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[1] The gerund is really the neuter of the gerundive used substantively.

239. The **Supine** is a verbal noun of the fourth declension, and is commonly found only in the accusative singular, ending in **-tum** or **-sum**, and in the ablative singular, ending in **-tū** or **-sū** : as, **amātum, amātū ; vīsum, vīsū.**

240. There are four participles : the present active, the future active, the past passive, and the future passive, or gerundive.

Latin lacks the perfect active participle (as, *having heard*) and the present passive participle (as, *being heard*). But the past participle of deponent verbs (§ 247), though passive in form, is generally active in meaning.

a. The **Present Active Participle** has the same meaning as the English participle in *-ing*. It is formed by adding **-nt-** (nominative singular **-ns**) to the present stem (as, **vocā-ns**, *calling*), and is declined like an adjective of one ending of the third declension (cf. § 149). In the fourth conjugation the thematic vowel appears as **e** between the stem and the ending: as, **audi-ē-ns**, *hearing*.

b. The **Future Active Participle** is used to express what is *likely* or *about* to happen, and is regularly formed by adding **-ūrus, -a, -um** to the participial stem.

amāt-ūrus, *about to love*	**monit-ūrus**, *about to advise*

c. The **Past Participle Passive** has the meaning of the English past participle passive, and is regularly formed by adding **-us, -a, -um** to the participial stem: as, **amāt-us**, *loved*. It is used also with forms of **esse** to form the passive tenses of the perfect system (cf. § 231).

NOTE. The past participle of deponent verbs (§ 247) is generally active in meaning: as, **hortātus**, *having encouraged*.

d. The **Future Passive Participle**, or **Gerundive**, sometimes denotes obligation, propriety, or intention, but more frequently has the same meaning as the gerund (§ 238).

The gerundive is formed like the gerund (§ 238) from the present stem, but with the endings **-ndus, -a, -um** in the nominative singular, and is declined throughout like **bonus** (§ 140).

amandus, -a, -um, *to be loved*	**regendus, -a, -um**, *to be ruled*

CONJUGATION OF **SUM**

241. The verb **sum**, *to be*, is irregular, but is given first because of its importance as an auxiliary in the formation of the passive tenses of the regular verb.

PRINCIPAL PARTS: *pres. indic.* **sum**, *pres. infin.* **esse**, *perf. indic.* **fuī**, *fut. part.* **futūrus**[1]

PRES. STEM **es-** PERF. STEM **fu-** PART. STEM **fut-**

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

SINGULAR	PLURAL
s**um**, *I am*	s**umus**, *we are*
es, *thou art*	es**tis**, *you are*
es**t**, *he (she, it) is*	s**unt**, *they are*

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

er**am**, *I was*	er**āmus**, *we were*
er**ās**, *thou wast*	er**ātis**, *you were*
er**at**, *he was*	er**ant**, *they were*

FUTURE

er**ō**, *I shall be*	er**imus**, *we shall be*
er**is**, *thou wilt be*	er**itis**, *you will be*
er**it**, *he will be*	er**unt**, *they will be*

PERFECT

fu**ī**, *I have been, was*	fu**imus**, *we have been, were*
fu**istī**, *thou hast been, wast*	fu**istis**, *you have been, were*
fu**it**, *he has been, was*	fu**ērunt** fu**ēre** } *they have been, were*

PAST PERFECT

fu**eram**, *I had been*	fu**erāmus**, *we had been*
fu**erās**, *thou hadst been*	fu**erātis**, *you had been*
fu**erat**, *he had been*	fu**erant**, *they had been*

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[1] Sum has no past participle (cf. § 212. N.).

Future Perfect

SINGULAR	PLURAL
fu**erō**, *I shall have been*	fu**erimus**, *we shall have been*
fu**eris**, *thou wilt have been*	fu**eritis**, *you will have been*
fu**erit**, *he will have been*	fu**erint**, *they will have been*

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present

SINGULAR	PLURAL
s**im**	s**īmus**
s**īs**	s**ītis**
s**it**	s**int**

Past

SINGULAR	PLURAL
es**sem**	es**sēmus**
es**sēs**	es**sētis**
es**set**	es**sent**

Perfect

fu**erim**	fu**erī̆mus**
fu**erī̆s**	fu**erī̆tis**
fu**erit**	fu**erint**

Past Perfect

fu**issem**	fu**issēmus**
fu**issēs**	fu**issētis**
fu**isset**	fu**issent**

IMPERATIVE

Present

2D PERS. SING.	es, *be thou*
2D PERS. PLUR.	es**te**, *be ye*

Future

2D PERS. SING.	es**tō**, *thou shalt be*
3D PERS. SING.	es**tō**, *he shall be*
2D PERS. PLUR.	es**tōte**, *ye shall be*
3D PERS. PLUR.	s**untō**, *they shall be*

INFINITIVE

PRES. es**se**, *to be*

PERF. fu**isse**, *to have been*

FUT. fut**ūrus, -a, -um esse**, or **fore**, *to be about to be*

PARTICIPLE

fut**ūrus, -a, -um**, *about to be*

a. In the past subjunctive **forem**, **forēs**, **foret**, **forent** are often used instead of **essem**, **essēs**, etc.; so in the future infinitive **fore** is used for **futūrus esse**.

b. The present participle is lacking in **sum**, but appears in the participial adjectives **ab-sēns** (*absent*) and **prae-sēns** (*present*).

c. Old present subjunctives are **siem**, **siēs**, **siet**, **sient**, and **fuam**, **fuās**, **fuat**, **fuant**.

REGULAR VERBS

242. FIRST CONJUGATION. *Ā*-VERBS. *AMŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus**

PRES. STEM **amā-** PERF. STEM **amāv-** PART. STEM **amāt-**

ACTIVE INDICATIVE PASSIVE

PRESENT

I love, am loving, do love, etc.		*I am loved,* etc.	
am**ō**	amā**mus**	am**or**	amā**mur**
amā**s**	amā**tis**	amā**ris** (**-re**)	amā**minī**
ama**t**	ama**nt**	amā**tur**	ama**ntur**

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I loved, was loving, did love, etc.		*I was (being) loved,* etc.	
amā**bam**	amā**bāmus**	amā**bar**	amā**bāmur**
amā**bās**	amā**bātis**	amā**bāris** (**-re**)	amā**bāminī**
amā**bat**	amā**bant**	amā**bātur**	amā**bantur**

FUTURE

I shall love, etc.		*I shall be loved,* etc.	
amā**bō**	amā**bimus**	amā**bor**	amā**bimur**
amā**bis**	amā**bitis**	amā**beris** (**-re**)	amā**biminī**
amā**bit**	amā**bunt**	amā**bitur**	amā**buntur**

PERFECT

I have loved, loved, did love, etc.		*I have been (was) loved,* etc.			
amāv**ī**	amāv**imus**	amāt**us,** **-a, -um**	**sum**	amāt**ī,** **-ae, -a**	**sumus**
amāv**istī**	amāv**istis**		**es**		**estis**
amāv**it**	amāv**ērunt** (**-re**)		**est**		**sunt**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE			

Past Perfect

I had loved, etc.		*I had been loved*, etc.			
amāv**eram**	amāv**erāmus**	amāt**us**, **-a, -um**	**eram**	amāt**ī**, **-ae, -a**	**erāmus**
amāv**erās**	amāv**erātis**		**erās**		**erātis**
amāv**erat**	amāv**erant**		**erat**		**erant**

Future Perfect

I shall have loved, etc.		*I shall have been loved*, etc.			
amāv**erō**	amāv**erimus**	amāt**us**, **-a, -um**	**erō**	amāt**ī**, **-ae, -a**	**erimus**
amāv**eris**	amāv**eritis**		**eris**		**eritis**
amāv**erit**	amāv**erint**		**erit**		**erunt**

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present

am**em**	am**ēmus**	am**er**	am**ēmur**
am**ēs**	am**ētis**	am**ēris** (-re)	am**ēminī**
am**et**	am**ent**	am**ētur**	am**entur**

Past

amā**rem**	amā**rēmus**	amā**rer**	amā**rēmur**
amā**rēs**	amā**rētis**	amā**rēris** (-re)	amā**rēminī**
amā**ret**	amā**rent**	amā**rētur**	amā**rentur**

Perfect

amāv**erim**	amāv**erī̆mus**	amāt**us**, **-a, -um**	**sim**	amāt**ī**, **-ae, -a**	**sīmus**
amāv**erī̆s**	amāv**erī̆tis**		**sīs**		**sītis**
amāv**erit**	amāv**erint**		**sit**		**sint**

Past Perfect

amāv**issem**	amāv**issēmus**	amāt**us**, **-a, -um**	**essem**	amāt**ī**, **-ae, -a**	**essēmus**
amāv**issēs**	amāv**issētis**		**essēs**		**essētis**
amāv**isset**	amāv**issent**		**esset**		**essent**

IMPERATIVE

Present

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
amā, *love thou*	amā**re**, *be thou loved*
amā**te**, *love ye*	amā**minī**, *be ye loved*

Future

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
amā**tō**, *thou shalt love*	amā**tor**, *thou shalt be loved*
amā**tō**, *he shall love*	amā**tor**, *he shall be loved*
amā**tōte**, *ye shall love*	———
ama**ntō**, *they shall love*	ama**ntor**, *they shall be loved*

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Pres.	amā**re**, *to love*	amā**rī**, *to be loved*
Perf.	amāv**isse**, *to have loved*	amāt**us, -a, -um esse**, *to have been loved*
Fut.	amāt**ūrus, -a, -um esse**, *to be about to love*	amāt**um īrī**, *to be about to be loved*

PARTICIPLES

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
Pres.	amā**ns**, -a**ntis**, *loving*	Pres.	———
Fut.	amāt**ūrus, -a, -um**, *about to love*	Ger.[1]	ama**ndus, -a, -um**, *to be loved*
Past	———	Past	amāt**us, -a, -um**, *having been loved, loved*

GERUND		SUPINE (Active Voice)	
Nom.	———	Acc.	amāt**um**, *to love*
Gen.	ama**ndī**, *of loving*	Abl.	amāt**ū**, *to love, in the loving*
Dat.	ama**ndō**, *for loving*		
Acc.	ama**ndum**, *loving*		
Abl.	ama**ndō**, *by loving*		

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[1] Gerundive, sometimes called the future passive participle.

243. SECOND CONJUGATION. *Ē*-VERBS. *MONEŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **moneō, monēre, monuī, monitus**

PRES. STEM **monē-** PERF. STEM **monu-** PART. STEM **monit-**

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

ACTIVE *I advise*, etc.		PASSIVE *I am advised*, etc.	
mone**ō**	monē**mus**	mone**or**	monē**mur**
monē**s**	monē**tis**	monē**ris** (-re)	monē**minī**
mone**t**	mone**nt**	monē**tur**	mone**ntur**

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I was advising, etc.		*I was advised*, etc.	
monē**bam**	monē**bāmus**	monē**bar**	monē**bāmur**
monē**bās**	monē**bātis**	monē**bāris** (-re)	monē**bāminī**
monē**bat**	monē**bant**	monē**bātur**	monē**bantur**

FUTURE

I shall advise, etc.		*I shall be advised*, etc.	
monē**bō**	monē**bimus**	monē**bor**	monē**bimur**
monē**bis**	monē**bitis**	monē**beris** (-re)	monē**biminī**
monē**bit**	monē**bunt**	monē**bitur**	monē**buntur**

PERFECT

I have advised, etc.		*I have been advised*, etc.	
monu**ī**	monu**imus**	monit**us**, **-a, -um** **sum**	monit**ī**, **-ae, -a** **sumus**
monu**istī**	monu**istis**	**es**	**estis**
monu**it**	monu**ērunt** (-re)	**est**	**sunt**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE			

PAST PERFECT

I had advised, etc. — *I had been advised*, etc.

monu**eram**	monu**erāmus**	monit**us**, -a, -um	**eram**	monit**ī**, -ae, -a	**erāmus**
monu**erās**	monu**erātis**		**erās**		**erātis**
monu**erat**	monu**erant**		**erat**		**erant**

FUTURE PERFECT

I shall have advised, etc. — *I shall have been advised*, etc.

monu**erō**	monu**erimus**	monit**us**, -a, -um	**erō**	monit**ī**, -ae, -a	**erimus**
monu**eris**	monu**eritis**		**eris**		**eritis**
monu**erit**	monu**erint**		**erit**		**erunt**

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRESENT

mone**am**	mone**āmus**	mone**ar**	mone**āmur**
mone**ās**	mone**ātis**	mone**āris** (-re)	mone**āminī**
mone**at**	mone**ant**	mone**ātur**	mone**antur**

PAST

monē**rem**	monē**rēmus**	monē**rer**	monē**rēmur**
monē**rēs**	monē**rētis**	monē**rēris** (-re)	monē**rēminī**
monē**ret**	monē**rent**	monē**rētur**	monē**rentur**

PERFECT

monu**erim**	monu**erī̆mus**	monit**us**, -a, -um	**sim**	monit**ī**, -ae, -a	**sīmus**
monu**erī̆s**	monu**erī̆tis**		**sīs**		**sītis**
monu**erit**	monu**erint**		**sit**		**sint**

PAST PERFECT

monu**issem**	monu**issēmus**	monit**us**, -a, -um	**essem**	monit**ī**, -ae, -a	**essēmus**
monu**issēs**	monu**issētis**		**essēs**		**essētis**
monu**isset**	monu**issent**		**esset**		**essent**

ACTIVE	PASSIVE

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

monē, *advise thou*	monē**re**, *be thou advised*
monē**te**, *advise ye*	monē**minī**, *be ye advised*

FUTURE

monē**tō**, *thou shalt advise*	monē**tor**, *thou shalt be advised*
monē**tō**, *he shall advise*	monē**tor**, *he shall be advised*
monē**tōte**, *ye shall advise*	———
mone**ntō**, *they shall advise*	mone**ntor**, *they shall be advised*

INFINITIVE

PRES.	monē**re**, *to advise*	monē**rī**, *to be advised*
PERF.	monu**isse**, *to have advised*	monit**us, -a, -um esse**, *to have been advised*
FUT.	monit**ūrus, -a, -um** esse, *to be about to advise*	monit**um īrī**, *to be about to be advised*

PARTICIPLES

PRES.	monē**ns**, -e**ntis**, *advising*	PRES.	———
FUT.	monit**ūrus, -a, -um**, *about to advise*	GER.	mone**ndus, -a, -um**, *to be advised*
PAST	———	PAST	monit**us, -a, -um**, *having been advised, advised*

GERUND		SUPINE (Active Voice)	
NOM.	———	ACC.	monit**um**, *to advise*
GEN.	mone**ndī**, *of advising*	ABL.	monit**ū**, *to advise, in the advising*
DAT.	mone**ndō**, *for advising*		
ACC.	mone**ndum**, *advising*		
ABL.	mone**ndō**, *by advising*		

244. THIRD CONJUGATION. *Ĕ*-VERBS. *REGŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **regō, regere, rēxī, rēctus**

PRES. STEM **rege-** PERF. STEM **rēx-** PART. STEM **rēct-**

ACTIVE PASSIVE

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

I rule, etc.		*I am ruled*, etc.	
reg**ō**	regi**mus**	reg**or**	regi**mur**
reg**is**	regi**tis**	rege**ris** (-re)	regi**minī**
reg**it**	regu**nt**	regi**tur**	regu**ntur**

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I was ruling, etc.		*I was ruled*, etc.	
regē**bam**	regē**bāmus**	regē**bar**	regē**bāmur**
regē**bās**	regē**bātis**	regē**bāris** (-re)	regē**bāminī**
regē**bat**	regē**bant**	regē**bātur**	regē**bantur**

FUTURE

I shall rule, etc.		*I shall be ruled*, etc.	
reg**am**	reg**ēmus**	reg**ar**	reg**ēmur**
reg**ēs**	reg**ētis**	reg**ēris** (-re)	reg**ēminī**
reg**et**	reg**ent**	reg**ētur**	reg**entur**

PERFECT

I have ruled, etc.		*I have been ruled*, etc.			
rēx**ī**	rēx**imus**	rēct**us**, -a, -um	**sum**	rēct**ī**, -ae, -a	**sumus**
rēx**istī**	rēx**istis**		**es**		**estis**
rēx**it**	rēx**ērunt** (-re)		**est**		**sunt**

ACTIVE

PASSIVE

Past Perfect

I had ruled, etc.		*I had been ruled*, etc.			
rēx**eram**	rēx**erāmus**	rēct**us**, -a, -um	eram	rēct**ī**, -ae, -a	erāmus
rēx**erās**	rēx**erātis**		erās		erātis
rēx**erat**	rēx**erant**		erat		erant

Future Perfect

I shall have ruled, etc.		*I shall have been ruled*, etc.			
rēx**erō**	rēx**erimus**	rēct**us**, -a, -um	erō	rēct**ī**, -ae, -a	erimus
rēx**eris**	rēx**eritis**		eris		eritis
rēx**erit**	rēx**erint**		erit		erunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present

reg**am**	reg**āmus**	reg**ar**	reg**āmur**
reg**ās**	reg**ātis**	reg**āris** (-re)	reg**āminī**
reg**at**	reg**ant**	reg**ātur**	reg**antur**

Past

rege**rem**	rege**rēmus**	rege**rer**	rege**rēmur**
rege**rēs**	rege**rētis**	rege**rēris** (-re)	rege**rēminī**
rege**ret**	rege**rent**	rege**rētur**	rege**rentur**

Perfect

rēx**erim**	rēx**erī̆mus**	rēct**us**, -a, -um	sim	rēct**ī**, -ae, -a	sīmus
rēx**erī̆s**	rēx**erī̆tis**		sīs		sītis
rēx**erit**	rēx**erint**		sit		sint

Past Perfect

rēx**issem**	rēx**issēmus**	rēct**us**, -a, -um	essem	rēct**ī**, -ae, -a	essēmus
rēx**issēs**	rēx**issētis**		essēs		essētis
rēx**isset**	rēx**issent**		esset		essent

IMPERATIVE

PRESENT

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
rege, *rule thou*	rege**re**, *be thou ruled*
regi**te**, *rule ye*	regi**minī**, *be ye ruled*

FUTURE

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
regi**tō**, *thou shalt rule*	regi**tor**, *thou shalt be ruled*
regi**tō**, *he shall rule*	regi**tor**, *he shall be ruled*
regi**tōte**, *ye shall rule*	———
regu**ntō**, *they shall rule*	regu**ntor**, *they shall be ruled*

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
PRES.	rege**re**, *to rule*	reg**ī**, *to be ruled*
PERF.	rēx**isse**, *to have ruled*	rēct**us**, **-a**, **-um** **esse**, *to have been ruled*
FUT.	rēct**ūrus**, **-a**, **-um** **esse**, *to be about to rule*	rēct**um** **īrī**, *to be about to be ruled*

PARTICIPLES

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
PRES.	regē**ns**, -e**ntis**, *ruling*	PRES.	———
FUT.	rēct**ūrus**, **-a**, **-um**, *about to rule*	GER.	rege**ndus**, **-a**, **-um**, *to be ruled*
PAST	———	PAST	rēct**us**, **-a**, **-um**, *having been ruled, ruled*

GERUND

NOM.	———
GEN.	rege**ndī**, *of ruling*
DAT.	rege**ndō**, *for ruling*
ACC.	rege**ndum**, *ruling*
ABL.	rege**ndō**, *by ruling*

SUPINE (Active Voice)

ACC.	rēct**um**, *to rule*
ABL.	rēct**ū**, *to rule, in the ruling*

245. FOURTH CONJUGATION. *Ī*-VERBS. *AUDIŌ*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus**

PRES. STEM **audī-** PERF. STEM **audīv-** PART. STEM **audīt-**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

I hear, etc.		*I am heard*, etc.	
audi**ō**	audī**mus**	audi**or**	audī**mur**
audī**s**	audī**tis**	audī**ris** (-re)	audī**minī**
audi**t**	audi**unt**	audī**tur**	audi**untur**

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

I was hearing, etc.		*I was heard*, etc.	
audi**ēbam**	audi**ēbāmus**	audi**ēbar**	audi**ēbāmur**
audi**ēbās**	audi**ēbātis**	audi**ēbāris** (-re)	audi**ēbāminī**
audi**ēbat**	audi**ēbant**	audi**ēbātur**	audi**ēbantur**

FUTURE

I shall hear, etc.		*I shall be heard*, etc.	
audi**am**	audi**ēmus**	audi**ar**	audi**ēmur**
audi**ēs**	audi**ētis**	audi**ēris** (-re)	audi**ēminī**
audi**et**	audi**ent**	audi**ētur**	audi**entur**

PERFECT

I have heard, etc.		*I have been heard*, etc.			
audīv**ī**	audīv**imus**	audīt**us**, -**a**, -**um**	**sum**	audīt**ī**, -**ae**, -**a**	**sumus**
audīv**istī**	audīv**istis**		**es**		**estis**
audīv**it**	audīv**ērunt** (-re)		**est**		**sunt**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE			

Past Perfect

I had heard, etc. — *I had been heard*, etc.

audīv**eram**	audīv**erāmus**	audīt**us**, -a, -um	**eram**	audīt**ī**, -ae, -a	**erāmus**
audīv**erās**	audīv**erātis**		**erās**		**erātis**
audīv**erat**	audīv**erant**		**erat**		**erant**

Future Perfect

I shall have heard, etc. — *I shall have been heard*, etc.

audīv**erō**	audīv**erimus**	audīt**us**, -a, -um	**erō**	audīt**ī**, -ae, -a	**erimus**
audīv**eris**	audīv**eritis**		**eris**		**eritis**
audīv**erit**	audīv**erint**		**erit**		**erunt**

SUBJUNCTIVE

Present

audi**am**	audi**āmus**	audi**ar**	audi**āmur**
audi**ās**	audi**ātis**	audi**āris** (-re)	audi**āminī**
audi**at**	audi**ant**	audi**ātur**	audi**antur**

Past

audī**rem**	audī**rēmus**	audī**rer**	audī**rēmur**
audī**rēs**	audī**rētis**	audī**rēris** (-re)	audī**rēminī**
audī**ret**	audī**rent**	audī**rētur**	audī**rentur**

Perfect

audīv**erim**	audīv**erī̆mus**	audīt**us**, -a, -um	**sim**	audīt**ī**, -ae, -a	**sīmus**
audīv**erī̆s**	audīv**erī̆tis**		**sīs**		**sītis**
audīv**erit**	audīv**erint**		**sit**		**sint**

Past Perfect

audīv**issem**	audīv**issēmus**	audīt**us**, -a, -um	**essem**	audīt**ī**, -ae, -a	**essēmus**
audīv**issēs**	audīv**issētis**		**essēs**		**essētis**
audīv**isset**	audīv**issent**		**esset**		**essent**

IMPERATIVE

Present

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
audī, *hear thou*	audī**re**, *be thou heard*
audī**te**, *hear ye*	audī**minī**, *be ye heard*

Future

audī**tō**, *thou shalt hear*	audī**tor**, *thou shalt be heard*
audī**tō**, *he shall hear*	audī**tor**, *he shall be heard*
audī**tōte**, *ye shall hear*	———
audi**untō**, *they shall hear*	audi**untor**, *they shall be heard*

INFINITIVE

Pres.	audī**re**, *to hear*	audī**rī**, *to be heard*
Perf.	audīv**isse**, *to have heard*	audīt**us, -a, -um esse**, *to have been heard*
Fut.	audīt**ūrus, -a, -um esse**, *to be about to hear*	audīt**um īrī**, *to be about to be heard*

PARTICIPLES

Pres.	audi**ēns, -ientis**, *hearing*	Pres.	———
Fut.	audīt**ūrus, -a, -um**, *about to hear*	Ger.	audi**endus, -a, -um**, *to be heard*
Past	———	Past	audīt**us, -a, -um**, *having been heard, heard*

GERUND

Nom.	———
Gen.	audi**endī**, *of hearing*
Dat.	audi**endō**, *for hearing*
Acc.	audi**endum**, *hearing*
Abl.	audi**endō**, *by hearing*

SUPINE (Active Voice)

Acc.	audīt**um**, *to hear*
Abl.	audīt**ū**, *to hear, in the hearing*

VERBS IN *-IŌ* OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

246. Certain verbs in **-iō** do not belong to the fourth conjugation but to the third. In the present system, however, they follow the fourth conjugation wherever in the fourth conjugation a vowel follows the **i** of the stem. Verbs of this class are conjugated as follows:

capiō, *take*

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **capiō, capere, cēpī, captus**

PRES. STEM **cape-** PERF. STEM **cēp-** PART. STEM **capt-**

ACTIVE PASSIVE

INDICATIVE

PRESENT

capi**ō**	capi**mus**	capi**or**	capi**mur**
capi**s**	capi**tis**	cape**ris** (-**re**)	capi**minī**
capi**t**	capi**unt**	capi**tur**	capi**untur**

PAST DESCRIPTIVE

capi**ēbam**	capi**ēbāmus**	capi**ēbar**	capi**ēbāmur**
capi**ēbās**	capi**ēbātis**	capi**ēbāris** (-**re**)	capi**ēbāminī**
capi**ēbat**	capi**ēbant**	capi**ēbātur**	capi**ēbantur**

FUTURE

capi**am**	capi**ēmus**	capi**ar**	capi**ēmur**
capi**ēs**	capi**ētis**	capi**ēris** (-**re**)	capi**ēminī**
capi**et**	capi**ent**	capi**ētur**	capi**entur**

PERFECT

cēp**ī**, cēp**istī**, cēp**it**, etc.	capt**us, -a, -um sum, es, est**, etc.

PAST PERFECT

cēp**eram**, cēp**erās**, cēp**erat**, etc.	capt**us, -a, -um eram, erās, erat**, etc.

FUTURE PERFECT

cēp**erō**, cēp**eris**, cēp**erit**, etc.	capt**us, -a, -um erō, eris, erit**, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present	
capi**am**, capi**ās**, capi**at**, etc.	capi**ar**, -i**āris** (-**re**), -i**ātur**, etc.
Past	
cape**rem**, cape**rēs**, cape**ret**, etc.	cape**rer**, -e**rēris** (-**re**), -e**rētur**, etc.
Perfect	
cēp**erim**, cēp**erī̆s**, cēp**erit**, etc.	capt**us**, -**a**, -**um sim**, **sīs**, **sit**, etc.
Past Perfect	
cēp**issem**, cēp**issēs**, cēp**isset**, etc.	capt**us**, -**a**, -**um essem**, **essēs**, **esset**, etc.

IMPERATIVE

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
Present				
2D PERS.	cape	capi**te**	cape**re**	capi**minī**
Future				
2D PERS.	capi**tō**	capi**tōte**	capi**tor**	———
3D PERS.	capi**tō**	capi**untō**	capi**tor**	capi**untor**

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
PRES.	cape**re**	cap**ī**
PERF.	cēp**isse**	capt**us**, -**a**, -**um esse**
FUT.	capt**ūrus**, -**a**, -**um esse**	capt**um īrī**

PARTICIPLES

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
PRES.	capi**ēns**, -i**entis**	PRES.	———
FUT.	capt**ūrus**, -**a**, -**um**	GER.	capi**endus**, -**a**, -**um**
PAST	———	PAST	capt**us**, -**a**, -**um**

GERUND		SUPINE (Active Voice)	
GEN.	capi**endī** etc.	ACC.	capt**um**
		ABL.	capt**ū**

DEPONENT VERBS

247. A number of verbs, called *deponent*, have in general the forms of the passive but the meanings of the active.

Deponent verbs have, however, the following active forms: the future infinitive, the present and future participles, the gerund, and the supine.

Passive in *meaning* as well as in *form* are *always* the future passive participle (or gerundive) and *sometimes* the past participle.

Deponent verbs are inflected like regular verbs. Examples:

PRINCIPAL PARTS	I.	**hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum,** *urge*
	II.	**vereor, verērī, veritus sum,** *fear*
	III.	**sequor, sequī, secūtus sum,** *follow*
	IV.	**partior, partīrī, partītus sum,** *share, divide*

INDICATIVE

PRES.	hortor	vereor	sequor	partior
	hortāris (-re)	verēris (-re)	sequeris (-re)	partīris (-re)
	hortātur	verētur	sequitur	partītur
	hortāmur	verēmur	sequimur	partīmur
	hortāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	partīminī
	hortantur	verentur	sequuntur	partiuntur
P. D.	hortābar	verēbar	sequēbar	partiēbar
FUT.	hortābor	verēbor	sequar	partiar
PERF.	hortātus sum	veritus sum	secūtus sum	partītus sum
P. P.	hortātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	partītus eram
F. P.	hortātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	partītus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES.	horter	verear	sequar	partiar
PAST	hortārer	verērer	sequerer	partīrer
PERF.	hortātus sim	veritus sim	secūtus sim	partītus sim
P. P.	hortātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	partītus essem

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	hortāre	verēre	sequere	partīre
Fut.	hortātor	verētor	sequitor	partītor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	hortārī	verērī	sequī	partīrī
Perf.	hortātus esse	veritus esse	secūtus esse	partītus esse
Fut.	**hortātūrus esse**	**veritūrus esse**	**secūtūrus esse**	**partītūrus esse**

PARTICIPLES

Pres.	**hortāns**	**verēns**	**sequēns**	**partiēns**
Fut.	**hortātūrus**	**veritūrus**	**secūtūrus**	**partītūrus**
Past	hortātus	veritus	secūtus	partītus
Ger.	hortandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus

GERUND

hortandī, etc.	**verendī**, etc.	**sequendī**, etc.	**partiendī**, etc.

SUPINE

hortātum, -tū	**veritum, -tū**	**secūtum, -tū**	**partītum, -tū**

a. Deponent verbs in **-iō** of the third conjugation are inflected like the passive of **capiō** (§ 246).

SEMI-DEPONENTS

248. A few verbs, called *semi-deponents*, have active forms in the present system, and passive forms with active meanings in the perfect system. These are:

audeō, audēre, ausus sum,[1] *dare*
fīdō, fīdere, fīsus sum, *trust*
gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum, *rejoice*
soleō, solēre, solitus sum, *be accustomed*

a. Some of the compounds of **vertō**, *turn*, are deponent except in the perfect system: as, **revertor**, **revertī** (infin.), **revertī** (perf.), **reversus**, *return*.

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[1] The forms **ausim, ausis, ausit, ausint** occur as perfect subjunctives.

THE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATIONS

249. There are two periphrastic conjugations, the active and the passive.

a. The active periphrastic conjugation denotes a *future* or *intended* action, and is made by combining the future active participle with the forms of **sum.**

b. The passive periphrastic conjugation denotes *obligation*, *necessity*, or *propriety*, and is made by combining the gerundive with the forms of **sum.**

250. The following is the inflection of the active and passive periphrastic forms of a verb of the first conjugation. The inflection is similar in the other conjugations.

INDICATIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Present	laudātūrus sum, *I am about to* (or *intend to*) *praise*	laudandus sum, *I am to be* (or *must be*) *praised*
Past Descriptive	laudātūrus eram	laudandus eram
Future	laudātūrus erō	laudandus erō
Perfect	laudātūrus fuī	laudandus fuī
Past Perfect	laudātūrus fueram	laudandus fueram
Future Perfect	laudātūrus fuerō	laudandus fuerō

ACTIVE	PASSIVE
SUBJUNCTIVE	
PRESENT	
laudātūrus sim	laudandus sim
PAST	
laudātūrus essem	laudandus essem
PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuerim	laudandus fuerim
PAST PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuissem	laudandus fuissem
INFINITIVE	
PRESENT	
laudātūrus esse	laudandus esse
PERFECT	
laudātūrus fuisse	laudandus fuisse

a. The periphrastic conjugations lack the imperative, participles, gerund, and supine.

IRREGULAR VERBS

251. The irregular verbs are **sum**, **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, **ferō**, **edō**, **dō**, **eō**, **queō**, **fīō**, and their compounds.

In verbs that are regular the personal endings are preceded by the thematic or stem vowel (cf. §§ 210, 221). Irregular verbs contain forms in which the personal endings are added directly to the root, with no intervening vowel,[1] as in **es-t**, **vul-t**, etc. However, most of the forms of the irregular verbs differ in no way from those of regular verbs.

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[1] Because of the absence of the thematic vowel (§ 221), irregular verbs are sometimes called *athematic*.

SUM AND ITS COMPOUNDS

252. For the conjugation of **sum** see § 241. Most compounds of **sum** are conjugated like the simple verb.

The present participle, which is lacking in **sum**, appears in the participial adjectives **ab-sēns** (*absent*) from **absum**, and **prae-sēns** (*present*) from **praesum**.

253. Prōsum, *help,* is a compound of **prōd** (the earlier form of **prō**) and **sum**. The final **d** of the preposition disappears before a consonant, but is retained before a vowel.

Hence in the present indicative the inflection is:

prōsum	prō′sumus
prōdes	prōdes′tis
prōdest	prōsunt

Similarly we have **prōderam**, **prōderō**, **prōdessem**, etc.

254. Possum, *be able,* in its present system is a compound of the adjective **potis**, or **pote**, *able,* and **sum**. The remaining forms are from an obsolete verb **potēre**.

Principal Parts: **possum, posse, potuī, ——**

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Pres.	possum	pos′sumus	possim	possī′mus
	potes	potes′tis	possīs	possī′tis
	potest	possunt	possit	possint
Past	poteram	poterāmus	possem	possē′mus
Fut.	poterō	poterimus	———	———
Perf.	potuī	potuimus	potuerim	potuerĭmus
P. Perf.	potueram	potuerāmus	potuissem	potuissēmus
F. Perf.	potuerō	potuerimus	———	———

INFINITIVE

Pres. posse Perf. potuisse

PARTICIPLE

Pres. potēns, potentis (adjective), *powerful*

VOLŌ, NŌLŌ, AND *MĀLŌ*

255. **Nōlō** and **mālō** are compounds of **volō**. **Nōlō** is for **ne** (*not*) + **volō**, and **mālō** for **mā** (from **magis**, *more*) + **volō**. The form **vīs**, the second person singular of **volō**, is from a different root.

These verbs are inflected as follows:

PRINCIPAL PARTS
volō, velle, voluī, ——, *be willing, will, wish*
nōlō, nōlle, nōluī, ——, *be unwilling, will not*
mālō, mālle, māluī, ——, *be more willing, prefer*

INDICATIVE

		SINGULAR	
PRES.	volō	nōlō	mālō
	vīs	nōn vīs	māvīs
	vult	nōn vult	māvult
		PLURAL	
	volumus	nōlumus	mālumus
	vultis	nōn vultis	māvul'tis
	volunt	nōlunt	mālunt
P. DESCR.	volēbam	nōlēbam	mālēbam
FUT.	volam, volēs, etc.	nōlam, nōlēs, etc.	mālam, mālēs, etc.
PERF.	voluī	nōluī	māluī
P. PERF.	volueram	nōlueram	mālueram
F. PERF.	voluerō	nōluerō	māluerō

SUBJUNCTIVE

		SINGULAR	
PRES.	velim	nōlim	mālim
	velīs	nōlīs	mālīs
	velit	nōlit	mālit

		PLURAL	
	velī'mus	nōlī'mus	mālī'mus
	velī'tis	nōlī'tis	mālī'tis
	velint	nōlint	mālint
		SINGULAR	
PAST	vellem, vellēs, etc.	nōllem, nōllēs, etc.	māllem, māllēs, etc.
		PLURAL	
	vellē'mus	nōllē'mus	māllē'mus
	vellē'tis	nōllē'tis	māllē'tis
	vellent	nōllent	māllent
PERF.	voluerim	nōluerim	māluerim
P. PERF.	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem
		IMPERATIVE	
PRES.	———	nōlī, nōlīte	———
FUT.	———	nōlītō, nōlītōte	———
		nōlītō, nōluntō	
		INFINITIVE	
PRES.	velle	nōlle	mālle
PERF.	voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse
		PARTICIPLE	
PRES.	volēns, -entis	nōlēns, -entis	———

NOTE. **Vellem** is for **vel-sem**, and **velle** for **vel-se** (cf. § 51).

FERŌ AND ITS COMPOUNDS

256. **Ferō**, *bear*, has two independent roots : **fer-** in the present system, and **tul-**, for **tol-** (cf. **tollō**), in the perfect. The past participle **lātus** is for **tlātus**, **tlā-** being another form of the root **tol-**. The past subjunctive **ferrem** is for **fer-sem**, and the present infinitive **ferre** for **fer-se** (cf. §§ 51, 233. *b*, 237. *a*. 1).

Ferō is inflected as follows :

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **ferō, ferre, tulī, lātus**

PRES. STEM **fer-** PERF. STEM **tul-** PART. STEM **lāt-**

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
		INDICATIVE		
PRES.	ferō	ferimus	feror	ferimur
	fers	fertis	ferris (-re)	feriminī
	fert	ferunt	fertur	feruntur
PAST DESCR.	ferēbam		ferēbar	
FUT.	feram, ferēs, etc.		ferar, ferēris, etc.	
PERF.	tulī		lātus, -a, -um sum	
PAST PERF.	tuleram		lātus, -a, -um eram	
FUTURE PERF.	tulerō		lātus, -a, -um erō	
		SUBJUNCTIVE		
PRES.	feram, ferās, etc.		ferar, ferāris, etc.	
PAST	ferrem		ferrer	
PERF.	tulerim		lātus, -a, -um sim	
PAST PERF.	tulissem		lātus, -a, -um essem	
		IMPERATIVE		
PRES. 2D PERS.	fer	ferte	ferre	feriminī
FUT. 2D PERS.	fertō	fertōte	fertor	———
3D PERS.	fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor
		INFINITIVE		
PRES.	ferre		ferrī	
PERF.	tulisse		lātus, -a, -um esse	
FUT.	lātūrus, -a, -um esse		lātum īrī	

PARTICIPLES

PRES.	ferēns, -entis	PRES.	———
FUT.	lātūrus, -a, -um	GER.	ferendus, -a, -um
PAST	———	PAST	lātus, -a, -um

GERUND				SUPINE (Active Voice)	
GEN.	ferendī	ACC.	ferendum	ACC.	lātum
DAT.	ferendō	ABL.	ferendō	ABL.	lātū

a. The compounds of **ferō**, conjugated like the simple verb, are the following:

ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātus
au-, ab-	auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātus
con-	cōnferō	cōnferre	contulī	conlātus
dis-, dī-	differō	differre	distulī	dīlātus
ex-, ē-	efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātus
in-	īnferō	īnferre	intulī	inlātus
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātus
re-	referō	referre	rettulī	relātus
sub-	sufferō	sufferre	sustulī	sublātus

NOTE. **Ab-** and **au-** are two distinct prepositions with the same meaning. **Sustulī** and **sublātus** serve also respectively as the perfect indicative and past participle of the verb **tollō**.

EDŌ

257. **Edō**, *eat*, has the inflection of a regular verb of the third conjugation and, in addition, alternative forms in certain tenses of the present system. Thus:

PRINCIPAL PARTS: **edō, edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsus**

ACTIVE

INDICATIVE

PRES. edō, edis (ēs), edit (ēst)
edimus, editis (ēstis), edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES. edam (edim), edās (edīs), edat (edit)
edāmus (edīmus), edātis (edītis), edant (edint)
PAST ederem (ēssem), ederēs (ēssēs), ederet (ēsset)
ederēmus (ēssēmus), ederētis (ēssētis), ederent (ēssent)

	IMPERATIVE		INFINITIVE
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	edere (ēsse)
PRES. 2D PERS.	ede (ēs)	edite (ēste)	
FUT. 2D PERS.	editō (ēstō)	editōte (ēstōte)	
3D PERS.	editō (ēstō)	eduntō	

PASSIVE

Pres. Indic. 3d Sing.	editur (ēstur)
Past Subjv. 3d Sing.	ederētur (ēssētur)

a. Note that the long vowel of the shorter forms distinguishes them from the corresponding forms of the verb **esse**, *be*.

b. The shorter forms of the present indicative, and the present subjunctive forms **edim**, **edīs**, etc., were those commonly used till the latter part of the classical period.

c. **Comedō**, *consume*, has either **comēstus** or **comēsus** as a past participle.

DŌ

258. The verb **dō**, *give*, is conjugated like a verb of the first conjugation, but the root vowel (**a**-) is everywhere short except in the second person singular of the present indicative and the present imperative active, and in the nominative singular of the present participle.

Principal Parts: **dō**, **dăre**, **dedī**, **datus**

Pres. Stem **dă-** Perf. Stem **ded-** Part. Stem **dat-**

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
	INDICATIVE			
Pres.	dō	damus	———	damur
	dās	datis	daris (-re)	daminī
	dat	dant	datur	dantur
P. Descr.	dabam		dabar	
Fut.	dabō		dabor	
Perf.	dedī		datus, -a, -um sum	
P. Perf.	dederam		datus, -a, -um eram	
F. Perf.	dederō		datus, -a, -um erō	

SUBJUNCTIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Pres.	dem, dēs, det, etc.	———, dēris (-re), dētur, etc.
Past	darem	darer
Perf.	dederim	datus, -a, -um sim
P. Perf.	dedissem	datus, -a, -um essem

IMPERATIVE

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
Pres. 2d Pers.	dā	date	dare	daminī
Fut. 2d Pers.	datō	datōte	dator	———
3d Pers.	datō	dantō	dator	dantor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE	PASSIVE
Pres.	dare	darī
Perf.	dedisse	datus, -a, -um esse
Fut.	datūrus, -a, -um esse	datum īrī

PARTICIPLES

	ACTIVE		PASSIVE
Pres.	dāns, dantis	Pres.	———
Fut.	datūrus, -a, -um	Ger.	dandus, -a, -um
Past	———	Past	datus, -a, -um

GERUND				SUPINE (Active Voice)	
Gen.	dandī	Acc.	dandum	Acc.	datum
Dat.	dandō	Abl.	dandō	Abl.	datū

a. In early Latin and in poetry occur forms from the related root **du-**: as, present subjunctive **duim**, **duīs**, etc., and sometimes **duam**, **duās**, etc.

b. In compounds, **dō** generally has the meaning *put*.[1] Most of these compounds, if the prefix is a monosyllable, are conjugated as verbs of the third conjugation: as, **condō**, **condere**, **condidī**, **conditus**, *found*.

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[1] Some grammarians consider this as a different verb from **dō**, *give*.

259. eō, *go*

Principal Parts: **eō, īre, ii (īvī), ĭtum**

Pres. Stem **ī-** Perf. Stem **ī-** or **īv-** Part. Stem **it-**

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres.	eō	īmus	eam
	is	ītis	
	it	eunt	
Past	ībam		īrem
Fut.	ībō		———
Perf.	iī (īvī)		ierim (īverim)
P. Perf.	ieram (īveram)		īssem (īvissem)
F. Perf.	ierō (īverō)		———

IMPERATIVE	Sing.	Plur.
2d Pers.	ī	īte
2d Pers.	ītō	ītōte
3d Pers.	ītō	euntō

INFINITIVE	
Pres.	īre
Perf.	īsse (īvisse)
Fut.	itūrus, -a, -um esse

PARTICIPLES	
Pres.	iēns, euntis
Fut.	itūrus, -a, -um
Ger.	eundum

GERUND			
Gen.	eundī	Acc.	eundum
Dat.	eundō	Abl.	eundō

SUPINE	
Acc.	itum
Abl.	itū

a. The passive of the simple verb **eō** is used only in the third person singular[1]: as, **ītur**, **itum est**, etc. But transitive compounds, such as **adeō**, *approach*, **ineō**, *enter*, have the passive complete.

b. In the perfect system the forms with **v** are very rare.

c. The compound **ambiō**, *go round*, is inflected regularly like a verb of the fourth conjugation.

d. In **prōdeō**, *go forth*, the preposition retains its original final **d**.

260. **Queō**, *be able*, and **nequeō**, *be unable*, are inflected like **eō**, but are rare except in the present indicative active.

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[1] Verbs appearing only in the third person singular are called *impersonal*, because they have no personal subject.

FĪŌ AND ITS COMPOUNDS

261. The active of **faciō**, *make*, is regular,[1] but in the passive **fīō**, *be made*, *become*, takes its place in the present system, except in the gerundive **faciendus**. The perfect passive system is formed regularly from **faciō**.

Principal Parts: **fīō, fierī, factus sum**

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	IMPERATIVE		
Pres.	fīō	——	fīam	2d Pers.	fī	fīte
	fīs	——				
	fit	fīunt				
Past	fīēbam		fierem			
Fut.	fīam		——			
Perf.	factus, -a, -um sum		factus, -a, -um sim			
P. Perf.	factus, -a, -um eram		factus, -a, -um essem			
F. Perf.	factus, -a, -um erō		——			

	INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLES
Pres.	fierī	Pres.	——
Perf.	factus, -a, -um esse	Ger.	faciendus, -a, -um
Fut.	factum īrī	Past	factus, -a, -um

a. Most prepositional compounds of **faciō** are inflected regularly like verbs in **-iō** of the third conjugation.

Active, **cōnficiō, cōnficere, cōnfēcī, cōnfectus**
Passive, **cōnficior, cōnficī, cōnfectus sum**

b. Syntactic compounds (cf. § 292. *a*) of **faciō**, — like **benefaciō**, **calefaciō**, etc., — in which **faciō** remains unchanged, have the forms of **fīō** in the passive: as, **benefīō, -fierī, -factus sum.**

c. Isolated forms of **fīō** occur in a few words: as, **cōnfit**, **dēfit**, etc.

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[1] But it has imperative **fac** (§ 235. *c*) and, besides the regular forms, the future perfect **faxō** and the perfect subjunctive **faxim.**

DEFECTIVE VERBS

262. Defective verbs lack certain forms.

263. The following defective verbs lack the present system:

	coepī, *began*	**ōdī**, *hate*	**meminī**, *remember*
		INDICATIVE	
PERF.	coepī	ōdī	meminī
P. PERF.	coeperam	ōderam	memineram
F. PERF.	coeperō	ōderō	meminerō
		SUBJUNCTIVE	
PERF.	coeperim	ōderim	meminerim
P. PERF.	coepissem	ōdissem	meminissem
		IMPERATIVE	
			mementō
			mementōte
		INFINITIVE	
PERF.	coepisse	ōdisse	meminisse
FUT.	coeptūrus, -a, -um esse	ōsūrus, -a, -um esse	
		PARTICIPLES	
PAST	coeptus, -a, -um, *begun*	ōsus, -a, -um, *hating* or *hated*	
FUT.	coeptūrus, -a, -um	ōsūrus, -a, -um, *likely to hate*	

a. When used with the passive infinitive, the form of **coepī** is regularly passive: as, **coeptus sum vocārī**, *I began to be called*; but **coepī vocāre**, *I began to call.* For the present system **incipiō** is used.

b. The perfect, past perfect, and future perfect of **ōdī** and **meminī** have the meanings of a present, past, and future respectively.

ōdī, *I hate* **ōderam**, *I hated* (*was hating*) **ōderō**, *I shall hate*

The passive of **ōdī** is supplied by the idiom **odiō esse**, *to be hated* (lit. *to be for hatred*).

264. Many verbs are used only in the present system.

maereō, -ēre, *grieve*	**feriō, -īre,** *strike*

265. Some verbs occur in only a few forms.

a. **Aiō,** *say*:

INDICATIVE

PRES.	aiō, ais, ait; ——, ——, aiunt
P. DESCR.	aiēbam, aiēbās, etc.

SUBJUNCTIVE

PRES.	——, aiās, aiat; ——, ——, aiant (rare)

IMPERATIVE	PARTICIPLE
aī (rare)	aiēns

1. The vowels **a** and **i** are pronounced separately (**a-is**, **a-it**) except sometimes in old or colloquial Latin. Before a vowel, one **i** stands for two (see § 18): thus **aiō** was pronounced **a͡i-yō** and was sometimes written **aiiō**.

2. The second singular **ais** with the interrogative **-ne** is often written **ain**. An old past **aibam**, **aibās**, etc. (dissyllabic) is sometimes found.

3. The present **ait** often has the meaning of a perfect.

b. **Inquam,** *say*, except in poetry, is used only in direct quotations (cf. the English *quoth*).

INDICATIVE

PRES.	inquam, inquis, inquit; inquimus, inquitis (late), inquiunt
P. DESCR.	——, ——, inquiēbat; ——, ——, ——
FUT.	——, inquiēs, inquiet; ——, ——, ——
PERF.	inquiī, inquīstī, ——; ——, ——, ——

IMPERATIVE

PRES.	inque	FUT.	inquitō

1. The only common forms are the present **inquam**, **inquis**, **inquit**, **inquiunt**, and the future **inquiēs**, **inquiet**. **Inquam** is sometimes, and **inquit** is often, used as a perfect.

c. The deponent **fārī**, *to speak*, has the following forms:

INDICATIVE

PRES.	——, ——, fātur; ——, ——, fantur
FUT.	fābor, ——, fābitur; ——, ——, ——
PERF.	——, ——, fātus, -a, -um est; ——, ——, fātī, -ae, -a sunt
P. PERF.	fātus, -a, -um eram, ——, fātus, -a, -um erat; ——, ——, ——

	IMPERATIVE		INFINITIVE
PRES.	fāre	PRES.	fārī

PARTICIPLES

PRES.	fāns, fantis, etc. (in singular)
GER.	fandus, -a, -um, *to be spoken of*
PAST	fātus, -a, -um, *having spoken*

	GERUND		SUPINE
GEN.	fandī	ABL.	fātū
ABL.	fandō		

1. Several forms occur in compounds: as, **praefābor**, **affārī**.

d. Isolated defective forms are:

PRES. INDIC.	**quaesō**, *I beg*, **quaesumus**
IMPERATIVE	**salvē**, *hail*, **salvēte**, **salvētō**; INFIN. **salvēre**
IMPERATIVE	**(h)avē**, *hail*, **(h)avēte**, **(h)avētō**; INFIN. **(h)avēre**
IMPERATIVE	**cedo**, *give*, plural **cette**

IMPERSONAL VERBS

266. Impersonal verbs are used only in the *third person singular of the indicative and subjunctive*, and in the *infinitive*. The following verbs are almost always impersonal:

decet, *it is becoming*
fulgurat, *it lightens*
libet (**lubet**), *it pleases*
licet, *it is permitted*
miseret, *it distresses*
ninguit or **ningit**, *it snows*
oportet, *it is fitting*
paenitet, *it repents*
piget, *it grieves*
pluit, *it rains*
pudet, *it shames*
rēfert, *it concerns*
taedet, *it wearies*
tonat, *it thunders*

a. Verbs that generally have a personal subject are sometimes used impersonally.

accidit, *it happens* **placet**, *it pleases* **vidētur**, *it seems*

b. Intransitive verbs in the passive are always impersonal.

pugnātur, *there is fighting* (it is fought)
ītur, *some one goes* (it is gone)
parcitur mihi, *I am spared* (it is spared to me)
ventum est, *they* (*he*, *we*, etc.) *came* (it was come)

LIST OF VERBS

267. Regular verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are omitted from this list unless lacking the Perfect or the Participial System.

Compounds of regular formation, with the vowel of the root syllable unchanged, and conjugated like the simple verbs, are omitted. A prefixed hyphen indicates that the verb is found only in compounds.

The Past Participle of transitive verbs is given in the masculine, that of intransitives in the neuter (cf. § 212 and Note).

ab-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
ab-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
ab-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
ab-oleō, 2, -ēvī, -itus
ab-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, — [aboleō]
ab-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]
abs-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
abs-condō, 3, -dī (-didī), -ditus
ab-sistō, 3, -stitī, —
abs-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
ab-sum, abesse, āfuī, āfutūrus. Irregular, 252
accersō, see arcessō
ac-cidō, 3, -cĭdī, — [cadō]
ac-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
ac-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
ac-colō, 3, -uī, —
ac-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
acēscō, 3, -acuī, — [inceptive of aceō, 290. *a*; compound coacēscō]
acuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
ad-do, 3, -didī, -ditus
ad-ferō, -ferre, attulī, allātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
ad-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
ad-gredior, -ī, -gressus sum [gradior]. Deponent
ad-hibeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
ad-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
ad-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
ad-ipīscor, -ī, -eptus sum [apīscor]. Deponent

ad-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -ultum [alēscō]
ad-quīrō, 3, -quīsīvī, -quīsītus [quaerō]
ad-sentior, -īrī, -sēnsus sum. Deponent
ad-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessum [sedeō]
ad-sīdō, 3, -sēdī (-sīdī), —
ad-stō, 1, -stitī, —
a-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnĭtus [nōscō]
agō, 3, ēgī, āctus [-igō in most compounds, but see cōgō and peragō]
aiō. Defective, 265. *a*
albeō, 2, —, —
alēscō, 3, —, — [alō, 290. *a*; compounds adolēscō, coalēscō, etc.]
algeō, 2, alsī, —
algēscō, 3, alsī, — [algeō], 290. *a*
alō, 3, aluī, altus (alitus)
amb-igō, 3, —, — [agō]
amb-iō, 4, -iī (-īvī), -ītus (ambībat) [eō], 259. *c*
amiciō, 4, amixī (-cuī), amictus [iaciō]
angō, 3, —, —
aperiō, 4, aperuī, apertus
apīscor, -ī, aptus sum. Deponent
ap-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
ap-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
arceō, 2, -uī, — [-erceō in compounds]
arcessō (accersō), 3, arcessīvī, arcessītus
ārdeō, 2, ārsī, ārsūrus
ārdēscō, 3, ārsī, — [ārdeō], 290. *a*
āreō, 2, —, —
ārēscō, 3, -āruī, — [āreō], 290. *a*
arguō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
ar-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
ar-ripiō, 3, -uī, -reptus [rapiō]
a-scendō, 3, -dī, -scēnsus [scandō]
a-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus [spargō]
at-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
at-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
at-tingō, 3, -tigī, -tāctus [tangō]
audeō, audēre, ausus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
au-ferō, -ferre, abstulī, ablātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
augeō, 2, auxī, auctus
avē (havē), avēre (havēre). Defective, 265. *d*

balbūtiō, 4, —, —
bātuō, 3, -uī, —
bibō, 3, bibī, pōtus

cadō, 3, cecĭdī, cāsum [-cĭdō in compounds]
caedō, 3, cecīdī, caesus [-cīdō in compounds]
caleō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
calēscō, 3, -caluī, — [caleō], 290. *a*
calleō, 2, —, —
calveō, 2, —, —
candeō, 2, -uī, —
candēscō, 3, -canduī, — [candeō], 290. *a*
cāneō, 2, -uī, —
cānēscō, 3, cānuī, — [cāneō], 290. *a*
canō, 3, cecinī, — [-cinō in most compounds, perfect -cinuī]
capessō, 3, capessīvī, — [capiō], 290. *b*. 1
capiō, 3, cēpī, captus [-cipiō in compounds except antecapiō]
careō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
carpō, 3, carpsī, carptus [-cerpō in compounds]
caveō, 2, cāvī, cautus
cedo (imperative). Defective, 265. *d*
cēdō, 3, cessī, cessus
-cellō, 3, —, —

-cendō, 3, -cendī, -cēnsus
cēnseō, 2, -uī, cēnsus
cernō, 3, crēvī, -crētus
cieō (-ciō), ciēre (-cīre), cīvī, cĭtus (-cītus)
cingō, 3, cīnxī, cīnctus
-ciō, see cieō
circum-sistō, 3, -stetī (-stitī), —
circum-stō, 1, -stetī (-stitī), —
clangō, 3, —, —
clārēscō, 3, clāruī, — [clāreō], 290. *a*
claudeō, 2, —, —; see claudō (*limp*)
claudō (*limp*), 3, —, —
claudō (*close*), 3, clausī, clausus [-clūdō in compounds]
clueō, 2, —, —
co-alēscō, 3, -aluī, -alitum
coepī, -isse, coeptus. Defective, 263
co-erceō, 2, -uī, -itus [arceō]
co-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnĭtus [nōscō]
cōgō, 3, coēgī, coāctus [agō]
col-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
colō, 3, coluī, cultus
comb-ūrō, see ūrō
com-minīscor, -ī, -mentus sum. Deponent
cōmō, 3, cōmpsī, cōmptus [emō]
com-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
com-percō, 3, -persī, — [parcō]
com-pēscō, 3, -cuī, —
com-pingō, 3, -pēgī, -pāctus [pangō]
com-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
com-pungō, 3, -pūnxī, -pūnctus
con-cidō, 3, -cĭdī, — [cadō]
con-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
con-cinō, 3, -uī, — [canō]
con-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
con-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
con-cupīscō, 3, -cupīvī, -cupītus [cupiō]
con-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
con-cutiō, 3, -cussī, -cussus [quatiō]
con-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
cōn-ferciō, 4, —, -fertus [farciō]
cōn-ferō, -ferre, contulī, conlātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
cōn-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
cōn-fit. Defective, 261. *c*
cōn-fiteor, -ērī, -fessus sum [fateor]. Deponent
cōn-fringō, 3, -frēgī, -frāctus [frangō]
con-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
con-līdō, 3, -līsī, -līsus [laedō]
con-lūceō, 2, —, —
con-quīrō, 3, -quīsīvī, -quīsītus [quaerō]
cōn-sistō, 3, -stitī, —
cōn-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus [spargō]
cōn-stituō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [statuō]
cōn-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
cōn-sulō, 3, -uī, -sultus
con-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
con-ticēscō, 3, -ticuī, — [taceō]
con-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
con-tingō, 3, -tigī, -tāctus [tangō]
con-tundō, 3, -tudī, -tūsus (-tūnsus)
coquō, 3, coxī, coctus
cor-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
cor-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]
crēbrēscō, 3, -crēbruī, —, 290. *a*
crēdō, 3, -didī, -ditus [-dō]
crepō, 1, crepuī (-crepāvī), -crepitus
crēscō, 3, crēvī, crētum [creō], 290. *a*
crūdēscō, 3, -crūduī, —, 290. *a*
cubō, 1, cubuī (cubāvī), cubitum
cūdō, 3, -cūdī, -cūsus

-cumbō, 3, -cubuī, -cubitum [compounds with dē-, ob-, prō-, re-, and sub- lack the past participle]
cupiō, 3, cupīvī, cupītus
currō, 3, cucurrī, cursum [in the perfect, compounds have either -currī or -cucurrī]

dēbeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
dē-cerpō, 3, -cerpsī, -cerptus [carpō]
decet, decēre, decuit. Impersonal
dē-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
dē-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursus
dē-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
dē-fetīscor, -ī, -fessus sum [fatīscō]. Deponent
dēgō, 3, —, — [agō]
dēleō, 2, -ēvī, -ētus
dē-libuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
dē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
dēmō, 3, dēmpsī, dēmptus [emō]
dē-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
dē-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
depsō, 3, -suī, -stus
dē-scendō, 3, -dī, -scēnsum [scandō]
dē-siliō, 4, -uī (-iī), — [saliō]
dē-sipiō, 3, —, — [sapiō]
dē-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
dē-spondeō, 2, -dī, -spōnsus
dē-tendō, 3, —, -tēnsus
dē-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
dē-vertor, -ī, —. Deponent
dīcō, 3, dīxī, dictus (imperative dīc, 235. *c*)
dif-ferō, -ferre, distulī, dīlātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
dif-fiteor, -ērī, — [fateor]. Deponent
dī-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, — [nōscō]
dī-ligō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus [legō]
dir-ibeō, 2, —, -itus [habeō]
dir-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
dī-ripiō, 3, -ripuī, -reptus [rapiō]
discō, 3, didicī, —
dis-crepō, 1, -crepuī (-crepāvī), —
dis-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
dis-iciō, 3, dis-iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
dis-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
dis-siliō, 4, -uī, — [saliō]
dis-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus
di-stō, 1, —, —
dītēscō, 3, —, —
dī-vidō, 3, -vīsī, -vīsus
dō, dăre, dedī, dătus [so circumdō, but most other compounds are of the third conjugation: see abdō, addō, condō, etc.]. Irregular, 258
doceō, 2, -uī, doctus
-dolēscō, 3, -doluī, — [doleō], 290. *a*
domō, 1, -uī, -itus
-dormīscō, 3, -dormīvī, — [dormiō], 290. *a*
dūcō, 3, dūxī, ductus (imperative dūc, 235. *c*)
dulcēscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
dūrēscō, 3, dūruī, —, 290. *a*

ē-bulliō, 4, ēbulliī, —
edō (*eat*), edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsus. Irregular, 257
ē-dō (*put forth*), 3, -didī, -ditus
ef-ferō, -ferre, extulī, ēlātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
ef-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
egeō, 2, -uī, —
ē-iciō, 3, -iēcī, -iectus [iaciō]
ē-liciō, 3, -uī, -itus [-liciō]

ē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
ē-micō, 1, -micuī, —
ē-mineō, 2, -uī, — [maneō]
emō, 3, ēmī, ēmptus [-imō in most compounds, as adimō, dirimō; but coëmō, cōmō, dēmō, prōmō, sūmō]
ē-necō, 1, -necuī (-necāvī), -nectus (-necātus)
eō, īre, iī (īvī), ĭtum [so in compounds except ambiō, 4, -īvī, -ītus; see also vēneō]. Irregular, 259
ē-rigō, 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
ēsuriō, 4, —, ēsurītūrus [edō], 290. *d*
ē-vādō, 3, -vāsī, -vāsus
ē-vanēscō, 3, ēvanuī, —, 290. *a*
ex-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
ex-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
ex-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
ex-cutiō, 3, -cussī, -cussus [quatiō]
ex-erceō, 2, -uī, -itus [arceō]
ex-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
ex-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -olētum [alēscō]
ex-pellō, 3, -pulī, -pulsus
ex-pergīscor, -ī, -perrēctus sum [pergō]. Deponent
ex-plōdō, 3, -sī, -sus [plaudō]
ex-pungō, 3, -pūnxī, -pūnctus
ex-siliō, 4, -uī (-iī), — [saliō]
ex-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
ex-stō, 1, —, —
ex-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
exuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus

facessō, 3, facessī, facessītus [faciō], 290. *b*. 1
faciō, 3, fēcī, factus [-ficiō in prepositional compounds] (imperative fac, 235. *c*; for passive see fīō)
fallō, 3, fefellī, falsus
farciō, 4, farsī, fartus [-ferciō in compounds]
fateor, -ērī, fassus sum [-fiteor in compounds]. Deponent
fatīscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
faveō, 2, fāvī, fautum
-fendō, 3, -fendī, -fēnsus
feriō, 4, —, —
ferō, ferre, tulī, lātus (imperative fer, 235. *c*). Irregular, 256
ferveō, 2, fervī (ferbuī), —; also fervō, 3
fīdō, fīdere, fīsus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
fīgō, 3, fīxī, fīxus
findō, 3, fidī, fissus
fingō, 3, fīnxī, fictus
fīō, fierī, factus sum. Irregular, used as the passive of faciō, 261
flectō, 3, flexī, flexus
fleō, 2, -ēvī, -ētus
-flīgō, 3, -flīxī, -flīctus
flōreō, 2, -uī, —
flōrēscō, 3, -flōruī, — [flōreō], 290. *a*
fluō, 3, flūxī, fluxum
fodiō, 3, fōdī, fossus
[for], fārī, fātus. Defective, 265. *c*
foveō, 2, fōvī, fōtus
frangō, 3, frēgī, frāctus [-fringō in compounds]
fremō, 3, fremuī, —
fricō, 1, fricuī, frictus (fricātus)
frīgeō, 2, —, —
frīgēscō, 3, -frīxī, — [frīgeō], 290. *a*
frīgō, 3, frīxī, frīctus
frondeō, 2, —, —
fruor, -ī, frūctus sum (fut. part. fruitūrus). Deponent

fugiō, 3, fūgī, fugitūrus
fulciō, 4, fulsī, fultus
fulgeō, 2, fulsī, —; also fulgō, 3
fundō, 3, fūdī, fūsus
fungor, -ī, fūnctus sum. Deponent
furō, 3, —, —

ganniō, 4, —, —
gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
gemō, 3, gemuī, —
gerō, 3, gessī, gestus
gestiō, 4, -īvī, —
gignō, 3, genuī, genitus
glīscō, 3, —, —
glūbō, 3, —, —
gradior, -ī, gressus sum [-gredior in compounds]. Deponent

habeō, 2, -uī, -itus [-hibeō in most compounds; but praebeō (from prae-hibeō), diribeō (from dis-hibeō), dēbeō (from dē-hibeō)]
haereō, 2, haesī, haesūrus
hauriō, 4, hausī, haustus (fut. part. preferably hausūrus)
havē, see avē
hebeō, 2, —, —
hebēscō, 3, —, — [hebeō], 290. *a*
hinniō, 4, —, —
hīscō, 3, —, — [hiō], 290. *a*
horreō, 2, horruī, —
horrēscō, 3, -horruī, — [horreō], 290. *a*

iaceō, 2, iacuī, —
iaciō, 3, iēcī, iactus [-iciō in compounds except superiaciō]
īcō, 3, īcī, ictus
i-gnōscō, 3, -gnōvī, -gnōtum [nōscō]
imbuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
im-mineō, 2, —, — [maneō]
im-pellō, 3, -pulī -pulsus
im-pingō, 3, -pēgī, -pāctus [pangō]
in-cessō, 3, incessīvī, — [incēdō]
in-cidō, 3, -cīdī, -cāsūrus [cadō]
in-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
in-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
in-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
in-colō, 3, -uī, —
in-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
in-cutiō, 3, -cussī, -cussus [quatiō]
ind-igeō, 2, -uī, — [egeō]
ind-ipīscor, -ī, -eptus sum [apīscor]. Deponent
in-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
indulgeō, 2, indulsī, indultum
induō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
in-gredior, -ī, -gressus sum [gradior]. Deponent
in-hibeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
in-līdō, 3, -līsī, -līsus [laedō]
in-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, — [alēscō]
inquam. Defective, 265. *b*
in-quīrō, 3, -quīsīvī, -quīsītus [quaerō]
īn-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]
īn-sīdō, 3, -sēdī, -sessus
īn-siliō, 4, -uī, — [saliō]
īn-sistō, 3, -stitī, —
īn-stituō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [statuō]
īn-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
intel-legō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus
inter-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
īrāscor, -ī, īrātus sum. Deponent
iubeō, 2, iussī, iussus
iungō, 3, iūnxī, iūnctus
iuvenēscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
iuvō, 1, iūvī, iūtus (fut. part. also iuvātūrus)

lābor, -ī, lāpsus sum. Deponent
lacessō, 3, lacessīvī, lacessītus, 290. *b.* 1
laedō, 3, laesī, laesus [-līdō in compounds]
lambō, 3, —, —
langueō, 2, —, —
languēscō, 3, languī, — [langueō]
lateō, 2, -uī, —
lavō, 3, lāvī, lautus (lōtus) (also regular of the first conjugation)
legō, 3, lēgī, lēctus [so in most compounds, but the root vowel changes in colligō, dēligō, dīligō, ēligō, sēligō; and dīligō, intellegō, and neglegō have x in the perfect: as, dīligō, 3, dīlēxī, dīlēctus]
libet (early lubet), -ēre, libuit or libitum est. Impersonal, 266
liceō, 2, licuī, —
licet, -ēre, licuit or licitum est (fut. part. licitūrum). Impersonal, 266
-liciō, 3, -lexī, -lectus [for *laciō in compounds; but ēliciō, 3, ēlicuī, ēlicitus]
linō, 3, lēvī (līvī), litus
linquō, 3, līquī, -lictus
liqueō, 2, licuī, —
liquēscō, 3, -licuī, — [liqueō], 290. *a*
līquor, ī-, —. Deponent
līveō, 2, —, —
loquor, -ī, locūtus sum. Deponent
lūceō, 2, lūxī, —
lūcēscō (-cīscō), 3, -lūxī, — [lūceō], 290. *a*
lūdō, 3, lūsī, lūsus
lūgeō, 2, lūxī, —
luō (*loose*), 3, luī, luitūrus
-luō (*wash*), 3, -luī, -lūtus
madeō, 2, maduī, —
madēscō, 3, maduī, — [madeō], 290. *a*
maereō, 2, —, —
mālō, mālle, māluī, —. Irregular, 255
mandō, 3, mandī, mānsus
maneō, 2, mānsī, mānsus
mānsuēscō, see suēscō
marcēscō, 3, -marcuī, — [marceō], 290. *a*
mātūrēscō, 3, mātūruī, —, 290. *a*
medeor, -ērī, —. Deponent
meminī, -isse. Defective, 263
mereō, 2, meruī, meritus, or deponent, mereor, etc.
mergō, 3, mersī, mersus
mētior, -īrī, mēnsus sum. Deponent
metō, 3, messuī, -messus
metuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
micō, 1, micuī, — [so in compounds except dīmicō, 1, -āvī, -ātum]
minuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
misceō, 2, -cuī, mixtus
misereor, -ērī, miseritus (rarely misertus) sum. Deponent
miseret. Impersonal, 266
mītēscō, 3, —, —, 290. *a*
mittō, 3, mīsī, missus
mōlior, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent
molō, 3, moluī, molitus
mordeō, 2, momordī, morsus
morior, -ī (-īrī), mortuus sum (fut. part. moritūrus). Deponent
moveō, 2, mōvī, mōtus
mulceō, 2, mulsī, mulsus
mulgeō, 2, mulsī, mulsus (mulctus)
muttiō, 4, -īvī, -ītus

nancīscor, -ī, nactus (nānctus) sum. Deponent
nāscor, -ī, nātus sum. Deponent
necō, 1, -āvī (-uī), -ātus [but ēnecō, 1, -necuī (-necāvī), -nectus (-necātus)]
nectō, 3, nexī (nexuī), nexus
neg-legō, 3, -lēxī, -lēctus
neō, 2, nēvī, —
nequeō, -quīre, -quīvī, -quitus. Defective, 260
nigrēscō, 3, nigruī, —, 290. *a*
ninguit (ningit), 3, nīnxit. Impersonal, 266
niteō, 2, nituī, —
nitēscō, 3, —, — [niteō], 290. *a*
nītor, -ī, nīsus (nīxus) sum. Deponent
-nīveō, 2, -nīvī (-nīxī), —
nō, 1, nāvī, —
noceō, 2, nocuī, nocitūrus
nōlō, nōlle, nōluī, —. Irregular, 255
nōscō, 3, nōvī, nōtus [so in compounds, except that agnōscō has agnitus and cognōscō has cognitus]
nōtēscō, 3, nōtuī, —, 290. *a*
nūbō, 3, nūpsī, nūptum
-nuō, 3, -nuī, —

ob-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
ob-līvīscor, -ī, oblītus sum. Deponent
ob-mūtēscō, 3, -mūtuī, —
ob-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]
ob-sīdō, 3, —, —
ob-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
obs-olēscō, 3, -olēvī, -olētum [alēscō]
ob-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
ob-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
ob-tingit, 3, obtigit [tangō]. Impersonal, 266
ob-tundō, 3, -tudī, -tūsus (-tūnsus)
oc-callēscō, 3, -calluī, — [calleō]
oc-cidō, 3, -cidī, -cāsum [cadō]
oc-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
oc-cinō, 3, -cinuī, — [canō]
oc-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
oc-culō, 3, -culuī, -cultus
oc-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
ōdī, ōdisse, ōsūrus. Defective, 263
of-ferō, -ferre, obtulī, oblātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
oleō (*smell*), 2, oluī, —
operiō, 4, operuī, opertus
oportet, -ēre, -uit. Impersonal, 266
op-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
ōrdior, -īrī, ōrsus sum. Deponent
orior, -īrī, ortus sum (fut. part. oritūrus). Deponent; usually of the third conjugation except in the present infinitive
os-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)

pacīscor, -ī, pactus sum [compound dēpecīscor]. Deponent
paenitet, -ēre, -uit. Impersonal, 266
palleō, 2, palluī, —
pallēscō, 3, palluī, — [palleō], 290. *a*
pandō, 3, pandī, pānsus (passus) [so expandō, but dispandō or dispendō]
pangō, 3, pepigī (pēgī or pānxī), pāctus [-pingō in compounds, perfect -pēgī]
parcō, 3, pepercī (parsī), parsūrus [compound compercō or comparcō]
pāreō, 2, -uī, —
pariō, 3, peperī, partus (fut. part. paritūrus)
partior, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent
parturiō, 4, -īvī, — [pariō], 290. *d*
pāscō, 3, pāvī, pāstus

pateō, 2, patuī, —
patior, -ī, passus sum [-petior in compounds]. Deponent
paveō, 2, pāvī, —
pavēscō, 3, -pāvī, — [paveō], 290. *a*
pectō, 3, pexī, pexus
pel-liciō, 3, -lexī, -lectus [-liciō]
pellō, 3, pepulī, pulsus [compounds have -pulī in the perfect, but repellō has reppulī for repepulī]
pendeō, 2, pependī, -pēnsum [compounds have -pendī in the perfect]
pendō, 3, pependī, pēnsus [compounds have -pendī in the perfect]
per-agō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus
per-cellō, 3, -culī, -culsus
per-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursus
per-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
per-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
per-fringō, 3, -frēgī, -frāctus [frangō]
pergō, 3, perrēxī, perrēctus [regō]
-periō, 4, -perī, -pertus; also -perior, deponent [so in compounds, but reperiō has perfect repperī]
per-petior, -ī, -pessus sum [patior]. Deponent
per-quīrō, 3, -quīsīvī, -quīsītus [quaerō]
per-stō, 1, -stitī, -statūrus
per-tineō, 2, -uī, — [teneō]
per-tundō, 3, -tudī, -tūsus
petessō (petissō), 3, —, — [petō], 290. *b*. 1
petō, 3, petīvī (-iī), petītus
piget, -ēre, piguit or pigitum est. Impersonal, 266
pingō, 3, pīnxī, pictus
pīnsō (pīsō), 3, pīnsuī (pīsīvī), pīstus (pīnsītus)
plangō, 3, plānxī, plānctus
plaudō, 3, plausī, plausus [so in compounds except explōdō]
plectō, 3, plexī, plexus
-plector, -ī, -plexus sum. Deponent
-pleō, 2, -plēvī, -plētus
plicō, 1, -plicuī (-plicāvī), -plicitus (-plicātus)
pluit, 3, pluit (plūvit). Impersonal, 266
polleō, 2, —, —
pol-luō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [-luō (*wash*)]
pōnō, 3, posuī, positus [sinō]
porr-iciō, 3, —, porrectus [iaciō]
por-rigō (porgō), 3, -rēxī, -rēctus [regō]
poscō, 3, poposcī, — [so in compounds], 290. *a*. N.
pos-sideō, 2, -sēdī, -sessus [sedeō]
possum, posse, potuī, —. Irregular, 254
potior, -īrī, -ītus sum. Deponent; usually of the third conjugation in the present system except in the infinitive
pōtō, 1, -āvī, -ātus (pōtus)
praebeō, 2, -uī, -itus [habeō]
prae-cellō, 3, —, —
prae-cinō, 3, -cinuī, — [canō]
prae-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), —
prae-sāgiō, 4, -īvī, —
prae-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
prae-stō, 1, -stitī, -stitum (-stātum)
prandeō, 2, prandī, prānsus
pre-hendō, 3, -hendī, -hēnsus, or prēndō, 3, prēndī, prēnsus
premō, 3, pressī, pressus [-primō in compounds]
prēndō, see prehendō
prō-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursum
prōd-eō, -īre, -iī, -itum. Irregular, 259. *d*

prōd-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
prō-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
prō-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
pro-ficīscor, -ī, profectus sum. Deponent
pro-fiteor, -ērī, professus sum [fateor]. Deponent
prō-mineō, 2, -uī, — [maneō]
prōmō, 3, prōmpsī, prōmptus [emō]
prō-siliō, 4, -uī (-īvī), — [saliō]
prō-sum, prōdesse, prōfuī, prōfutūrus. Irregular, 253
prō-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
psallō, 3, -ī, —
pūbēscō, 3, pūbuī, —, 290. *a*
pudet, -ēre, puduit or puditum est. Impersonal, 266
pungō, 3, pupugī, pūnctus [perfect -pūnxī in compounds]
pūtēscō, 3, pūtuī, — [pūteō], 290. *a*

quaerō, 3, quaesīvī, quaesītus [-quīrō in compounds]
quaesō, 3. Defective, 265. *d*
quatiō, 3, —, quassus [-cutiō, -cussī, -cussus in compounds]
queō, quīre, quīvī, quitus. Defective, 260
queror, -ī, questus sum. Deponent
quiēscō, 3, quiēvī, quiētum, 290. *a*

rabō (rabiō), 3, —, —
rādō, 3, rāsī, rāsus
rapiō, 3, rapuī, raptus [-ripiō, -ripuī, -reptus in compounds]
re-cidō, 3, reccīdī, recāsūrus [cadō]
re-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
re-cipiō, 3, -cēpī, -ceptus [capiō]
re-clūdō, 3, -clūsī, -clūsus [claudō]
red-dō, 3, reddidī, redditus
red-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
red-imō, 3, -ēmī, -ēmptus [emō]
re-fellō, 3, -fellī, — [fallō]
re-ferciō, 4, -fersī, -fertus [farciō]
re-ferō, -ferre, rettulī, relātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
re-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
regō, 3, rēxī, rēctus [-rigō in compounds, but see pergō and surgō]
re-minīscor, -ī, —. Deponent
reor, rērī, ratus sum. Deponent
re-pellō, 3, reppulī, repulsus
re-periō, 4, repperī, repertus [pariō]
rēpō, 3, rēpsī, —
re-primō, 3, -pressī, -pressus [premō]
re-quīrō, 3, -quīsīvī, -quīsītus [quaerō]
re-sideō, 2, -sēdī, — [sedeō]
re-siliō, 4, -uī (-iī), — [saliō]
re-sipīscō, 3, -sipīvī, — [sapiō], 290. *a*
re-sistō, 3, -stitī, -stitum
re-spergō, 3, -spersī, -spersus [spargō]
re-spondeō, 2, -spondī, -spōnsus
re-stō, 1, -stitī, —
re-tendō, 3, -tendī, -tentus (-tēnsus)
re-tineō, 2, -tinuī, -tentus [teneō]
re-tundō, 3, rettudī, retūnsus (-tūsus)
rīdeō, 2, rīsī, -rīsus
rigeō, 2, riguī, —
rigēscō, 3, riguī, — [rigeō], 290. *a*
rōdō, 3, rōsī, rōsus
rubeō, 2, —, —
rubēscō, 3, rubuī, — [rubeō], 290. *a*
rudō, 3, —, —
rumpō, 3, rūpī, ruptus
ruō, 3, ruī, -rutus (fut. part. ruitūrus)

saepiō, 4, saepsī, saeptus
saliō, 4, saluī, — [-siliō in compounds]

salvē, salvēre. Defective, 265. *d*
sanciō, 4, sānxī, sānctus
sapiō, 3, sapīvī, — [-sipiō in compounds]
sarciō, 4, sarsī, sartus
scabō, 3, scābī, —
scalpō, 3, scalpsī, scalptus
scandō, 3, -scendī, -scēnsus [-scendō in compounds]
scateō, 2, —, —: also scatō, 3
scindō, 3, scidī, scissus
scīscō, 3, scīvī, scītus [sciō], 290. *a*
scrībō, 3, scrīpsī, scrīptus
sculpō, 3, sculpsī, sculptus
secō, 1, secuī, sectus
sedeō, 2, sēdī, sessum [-sideō in compounds except circumsedeō and supersedeō]
sē-ligō, 3, -lēgī, -lēctus [legō]
sentiō, 4, sēnsī, sēnsus
sepeliō, 4, sepelīvī, sepultus
sequor, -ī, secūtus sum. Deponent
serō (*entwine*), 3, -seruī, sertus
serō (*sow*), 3, sēvī, satus
serpō, 3, serpsī, —
sīdō, 3, sīdī (-sēdī), -sessum
sileō, 2, -uī, —
sinō, 3, sīvī, situs
sistō, 3, stitī, status
sitiō, 4, -īvī, —
soleō, solēre, solitus sum. Semi-deponent, 248
solvō, 3, solvī, solūtus [luō (*loose*)]
sonō, 1, -uī, -ātūrus
sorbeō, 2, sorbuī (rarely sorpsī), —
spargō, 3, sparsī, sparsus [-spergō in compounds]
spernō, 3, sprēvī, sprētus
-spiciō, 3, -spexī, -spectus
splendeō, 2, —, —
spondeō, 2, spopondī, spōnsus [perfect -spondī in compounds]
spuō, 3, -spuī, -spūtus
squāleō, 2, —, —
statuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus [-stituō in compounds]
sternō, 3, strāvī, strātus
sternuō, 3, -uī, —
stertō, 3, -stertuī, —
stinguō, 3, -stīnxī, -stīnctus
stō, stāre, stetī, statūrus [perfect -stitī in most compounds]
strepō, 3, -uī, —
strīdeō, 2, strīdī, —: also strīdō, 3
stringō, 3, strīnxī, strictus
struō, 3, strūxī, strūctus
studeō, 2, -uī, —
stupeō, 2, -uī, —
stupēscō, 3, -stupuī, — [stupeō]
suādeō, 2, suāsī, suāsus
sub-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
sub-igō, 3, -ēgī, -āctus [agō]
suc-cidō, 3, -cĭdī, — [cadō]
suc-cīdō, 3, -cīdī, -cīsus [caedō]
suc-currō, 3, -currī, -cursum
suēscō, 3, suēvī, suētus, 290. *a*
suf-ferō, sufferre, sustulī, sublātus. Irregular, 256. *a*
suf-ficiō, 3, -fēcī, -fectus [faciō]
sūgō, 3, sūxī, sūctus
sum, esse, fuī, futūrus. Irregular, 241
sūmō, 3, sūmpsī, sūmptus [emō]
suō, 3, -suī, sūtus
super-fluō, 3, —, —
surgō, 3, surrēxī, surrēctum [regō]
sur-ripiō, 3, -ripuī (surpuī), -reptus [rapiō]

tābeō, 2, —, —
tābēscō, 3, tābui, — [tābeō], 290. *a*
taedet, -ēre, taeduit or taesum est. Impersonal, 266
tangō, 3, tetigī, tāctus [-tingō, -tigī in compounds]
tegō, 3, tēxī, tēctus
temnō, 3, -tempsī, -temptus
tendō, 3, tetendī, tentus (tēnsus) [perfect -tendī in compounds]
teneō, 2, tenuī, -tentus [-tineō in compounds]
tergeō, 2, tersī, tersus; also, rarely, tergō, 3
terō, 3, trīvī, trītus
texō, 3, texuī, textus
timeō, 2, -uī, —
-timēscō, 3, -timuī, — [timeō], 290. *a*
tingō (tinguō), 3, tīnxī, tīnctus
tollō, 3, sustulī, sublātus
tondeō, 2, -totondī (-tondī), tōnsus
tonō, 1, tonuī, -tonitum (-tonātum)
torpeō, 2, —, —
torqueō, 2, torsī, tortus
torreō, 2, torruī, tostus
trā-dō, 3, -didī, -ditus
trahō, 3, trāxī, trāctus
trāns-currō, 3, -currī (-cucurrī), -cursus
tremō, 3, tremuī, —
tribuō, 3, -uī, -ūtus
trūdō, 3, trūsī, trūsus
tueor, -ērī, tuitus (tūtus) sum. Deponent
tumeō, 2, —, —
tumēscō, 3, -tumuī, — [tumeō], 290. *a*
tundō, 3, tutudī, tūnsus (-tūsus) [perfect -tudī in compounds, but retundō has rettudī for retutudī]
turgeō, 2, tursī, —
tussiō, 4, —, —

ulcīscor, -ī, ultus sum. Deponent
unguō (ungō), 3, ūnxī, ūnctus
urgeō, 2, ursī, —
ūrō, 3, ussī, ūstus
ūtor, -ī, ūsus sum. Deponent

vādō, 3, -vāsī, -vāsum
vāgiō, 4, -iī, —
valeō, 2, -uī, -itūrus
valēscō, 3, -valuī, — [valeō], 290. *a*
vehō, 3, vexī, vectus
vellō, 3, vellī (vulsī), vulsus
vēndō, 3, -didī, -ditus [vēnum + dō]
vēneō (*be sold*), -īre, -iī, — [vēnum + eō]
veniō (*come*), 4, vēnī, ventum
vereor, -ērī, -itus sum. Deponent
vergō, 3, —, —
verrō (vorrō), 3, -verrī, versus
vertō (vortō), 3, vertī, versus
vēscor, -ī, —. Deponent
vesperāscit, 3, vesperāvit. Impersonal, 266; 290. *a*
vetō, 1, -uī, -itus
videō, 2, vīdī, vīsus
vigeō, 2, -uī, —
vinciō, 4, vīnxī, vīnctus
vincō, 3, vīcī, victus
vireō, 2, -uī, —
vīsō, 3, vīsī, —
vīvō, 3, vīxī, vīctum
volō, velle, voluī, —. Irregular, 255
volvō, 3, volvī, volūtus
vomō, 3, vomuī, vomitus
voveō, 2, vōvī, vōtus

PARTICLES

268. Adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections are called particles. They have no inflection.

a. Particles cannot always be distinctly classified, for many adverbs are used also as prepositions and many as conjunctions.

ADVERBS

Formation of Adverbs

269. Most adverbs are derived from adjectives and, like them, are compared.

270. Regular Formation. Adverbs regularly formed from adjectives end in **-ē** or **-ter.**

a. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the *first and second declensions* by changing the characteristic vowel of the stem to **-ē.**

cārē, *dearly*, from **cārus**, *dear* (stem **cāro-**)
amīcē, *like a friend*, from **amīcus**, *friendly* (stem **amīco-**)

Note. The ending **-ē** is a relic of an old ablative in **-ēd** (cf. § 55. *b*).

b. Adverbs are formed from adjectives of the *third declension* by adding **-ter** to the stem. Stems in **nt-** (nom. **-ns**) lose the **t-**; nearly all others are treated as **i**-stems.

fortiter, *bravely*, from **fortis** (stem **forti-**), *brave*
ācriter, *eagerly*, from **ācer** (stem **ācri-**), *eager*
vigilanter, *watchfully*, from **vigilāns** (stem **vigilant-**)
prūdenter, *prudently*, from **prūdēns** (stem **prūdent-**)
aliter, *otherwise*, from **alius** (old stem **ali-**)

c. Some adjectives of the first and second declensions have adverbs of both forms (**-ē** and **-ter**). Thus **dūrus**, *hard*, has both **dūrē** and **dūriter**; **miser**, *wretched*, has both **miserē** and **miseriter**. A few have only **-ter**: as, **violentus**, *violent*, has only **violenter.**

271. Special Formations. The accusative and ablative of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, especially in the neuter singular, are often used as adverbs. Examples:

a. Accusative neuter singular:

multum, *much*	**facile**, *easily*	**quid**, *why*

b. Ablative neuter singular:

falsō, *falsely*	**eō**, *thither*	**forte**, *by chance*
vulgō, *commonly*	**quō**, *whither*	**crēbrō**, *frequently*

c. Accusative feminine singular or plural:

partim, *partly*	**cōram**, *face to face*	**aliās**, *at other times*
vicem, *by turns*	**quam**, *how*	**forās**, *out of doors*

d. Ablative feminine singular or plural:

rēctā, *straightway*	**quā**, *where*	**forīs**, *out of doors*
posteā, *afterwards*	**ūnā**, *together*	**extrā**, *outside*

272. Other adverbial endings, some of which are case terminations in origin, are **-ī̆** or **-ē**, **-tim** or **-sim**, **-tus** or **-itus**.

a. The ending **-ī̆** or **-ē** is, originally, a locative case termination.

ibi, *there*	**hīc** (for **hī-ce**), *here*	**hodiē**, *to-day*
ubi, *where*	**illīc** (for **illī-ce**), *there*	**prīdiē**, *the day before*

b. The ending **-tim** or **-sim** originated in accusatives in **-tim**, like **partim**.

sēparātim, *separately*	**cursim**, *quickly*	**tribūtim**, *tribe by tribe*

c. The ending **-tus** or **-itus** is of doubtful origin.

funditus, *utterly*	**dīvīnitus**, *providentially*	**penitus**, *within*

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

273. Adverbs formed from adjectives are similarly compared. The comparative ends in **-ius**, and is in origin the neuter accusative singular of the comparative of the corresponding adjective. The superlative may be formed from the superlative of the corresponding adjective by changing final **-us** to **-ē**. Examples of adverbial comparison are the following:

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
cārē, *dearly*	**cārius**	**cārissimē**
pulchrē, *beautifully*	**pulchrius**	**pulcherrimē**
līberē, *freely*	**līberius**	**līberrimē**
fortiter, *bravely*	**fortius**	**fortissimē**
audācter, *boldly*	**audācius**	**audācissimē**
facile, *easily*	**facilius**	**facillimē**

a. Adverbs are sometimes compared by using the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **maximē**, *most*, with the positive: as, **apertē**, *openly*, **magis apertē**, **maximē apertē**. Many adverbs are not compared.

274. Irregular or Defective Comparison

POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
bene, *well*	**melius**, *better*	**optimē**, *best*
diū, *a long time*	**diūtius**, *longer*	**diūtissimē**, *longest*
male, *ill*, *badly*	**peius**, *worse*	**pessimē**, *worst*
magnopere **multum** } *greatly*	**magis**, *more*	**maximē**, *most*
multum, *much*	**plūs**, *more*	**plūrimum**, *most*
nūper, *recently*	———	**nūperrimē**, *most recently*
parum, *too little*	**minus**, *less*	**minimē**, *least*
———	**potius**, *rather*	**potissimum**, *especially*
———	**prius**, *before*	**prīmum**, *first*
prope, *near*	**propius**, *nearer*	**proximē**, *nearest*
saepe, *often*	**saepius**, *oftener*	**saepissimē**, *oftenest*
satis, *enough*	**satius**, *better*	———

PREPOSITIONS

275. Prepositions were not originally distinguished from adverbs in form or meaning, and developed from them comparatively late in the history of language. Many of them continued to be used as adverbs after they assumed the function of prepositions.

276. The following prepositions are used with the accusative:

ad, *to*
adversus
adversum } *over against, towards*
ante, *before*
apud, *at, near*
circā
circum } *around*
circiter, *about*
cis, citrā, *on this side of*
contrā, *against*
ergā, *towards* (a person)
extrā, *outside*
īnfrā, *below*
inter, *among, between*
intrā, *inside*
iūxtā, *near, beside*
ob, *on account of*
penes, *in the power of*
per, *through*
pōne, *behind*
post, *after*
praeter, *beyond, past*
prope, *near*
propter, *on account of, near*
secundum, *next to*
suprā, *above*
trāns, *across*
ultrā, *on the further side of*
versus, *towards*

a. **Versus** always follows its case: as, **Arpīnum versus**, *towards Arpinum.*

277. The following prepositions are used with the ablative:

ā, ab, abs, *away from, by*
absque, *without, but for*
cōram, *in the presence of*
cum, *with*
dē, *from, down from, concerning*
ē, ex, *out of*
prae, *in comparison with*
prō, *in front of, for the sake of*
sine, *without*
tenus, *up to, as far as*

a. **Ā** is used only before consonants. **Ab** is used before vowels or **h**, and may be used before most consonants. **Abs** is used only in the phrase **abs tē**. **Absque** is very rare.

b. **Ex** is used before vowels or **h**. Before consonants either **ē** or **ex** may be used.

c. **Tenus** always follows its case: as, **capulō tenus**, *up to the hilt.*

d. **Cum** is usually joined enclitically with all ablative forms of the pronouns **ego, tū, suī, quī**, and **quis**: as, **mēcum, tēcum, vōbīscum, sēcum, quōcum, quīcum, quibuscum.**

Note. In poetry and late prose the adverbs **palam, procul**, and **simul** are used as prepositions with the ablative.

278. Four prepositions, **in**, **sub**, **subter**, and **super**, are used with either the accusative or the ablative.

a. **In**, *in*, *into*, and **sub**, *under*, with the accusative denote *motion to* or *into*, with the ablative *rest in*.

in aedīs vēnit, *he came into the house*
in aedibus erat, *he was in the house*
sub iugum exercitum mīsit, *he sent the army under the yoke*
sub arbore sēdit, *he sat under a tree*

b. **Super** meaning *about*, *concerning*, takes the ablative; in all its other senses (*above*, *beyond*, *on*, etc.) it usually has the accusative.

c. **Subter**, *beneath*, with the ablative is rare.

CONJUNCTIONS

279. Conjunctions are closely related to adverbs and are of similar origin (cf. § 268. *a*). They are used to connect words, phrases, or sentences, and are of two classes, coördinating and subordinating.

a. Coördinating conjunctions connect expressions of equal rank.

b. Subordinating conjunctions connect a subordinate, or dependent, clause with the clause upon which it depends.

The uses of conjunctions are discussed under the head of syntax (§§ 597 ff.).

INTERJECTIONS

280. Interjections are particles expressing feeling, as *surprise*, *joy*, *sorrow*, etc. Some of them are mere natural exclamations; others are derived from inflected parts of speech.

ō lūx Dardaniae, *O light of Dardania!*
iō triumphe, *hurrah! victory!*
heu mē miserum, *alas for poor me!*
heus Syre, *hello there, Syrus!*
euge, **puer**, *well done, boy!*

a. Names of deities occur as interjections in oaths: as, **hercle**, *by Hercules*; **pol**, *by Pollux*; **ēcastor**, *by Castor*.

FORMATION OF WORDS

281. Most Latin words are either derived from or composed of other simpler words, and, according to their formation, are divided into two classes, derivatives and compounds.

a. Derivatives are formed from stems of nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs by adding certain endings called suffixes.[1]

1. Most suffixes are of pronominal origin, and in many cases their definite meaning is not clear.

b. Compounds are formed by adding together two or more stems or complete words.

armi-ger, *armor-bearer* (cf. **arma**, *arms*; **gerō**, *carry*)
omni-potēns, *omnipotent* (cf. **omnis**, *all*; **potēns**, *powerful*)
septen-decim, *seventeen* (cf. **septem**, *seven*; **decem**, *ten*)
bene-dīcō, *bless* (cf. **bene**, *well*; **dīcō**, *speak*)

I. DERIVATIVES

A. NOUNS

282. Nouns derived from Nouns. ***a.*** *Diminutives* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes:

MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
-ulus	**-ula**	**-ulum**
-olus	**-ola**	**-olum** (after a vowel)
-culus	**-cula**	**-culum**
-ellus	**-ella**	**-ellum**
-illus	**-illa**	**-illum**

rīv-ulus, *streamlet*	**rīvus**, *brook*
gladi-olus, *small sword*	**gladius**, *sword*
fīli-olus, *little son*	**fīlius**, *son*
fīli-ola, *little daughter*	**fīlia**, *daughter*

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[1] It is the *stem* of the derived word, not the *nominative*, that is formed by the suffix. For convenience, however, the nominative singular will be given.

ātri-olum, *little hall*	**ātrium**, *hall*
flōs-culus, *floweret*	**flōs**, *flower*
auri-cula, *little ear*	**auris**, *ear*
mūnus-culum, *little gift*	**mūnus**, N., *gift*
lib-ellus, *little book*	**liber**, *book*
lap-illus, *pebble*	**lapis**, *stone*

1. Diminutives regularly take the gender of the nouns from which they are derived, and may differ from them in meaning: as, **avunculus**, *uncle*, from **avus**, *grandfather*; **ōsculum**, *kiss*, from **ōs**, *mouth*.

2. Diminutives often express affection, pity, or contempt.

dēliciolae, *little pet*	**dēliciae**, *pet*
muliercula, *a poor* (weak) *woman*	**mulier**, *woman*
Graeculus, *a miserable Greek*	**Graecus**, *a Greek*

b. Nouns denoting *place of keeping or growing* are formed from nouns by means of the neuter suffixes:

-ārium, **-ētum** or **-tum**, **-īle**

aer-ārium, *treasury*	**aes**, *copper*
olīv-ētum, *olive grove*	**olīva**, *olive*
arbus-tum, *orchard*	**arbor**, *tree*
bov-īle, *ox stall*	**bōs**, *ox*

c. Nouns denoting the *person employed about* anything are formed from nouns by means of the masculine suffixes:

-iō, **-ārius**, **-icus**

mūl-iō, *mule driver*	**mūlus**, *mule*
falc-ārius, *scythe maker*	**falx**, *scythe*
vīl-icus, *steward*	**vīlla**, *farm*

d. Nouns denoting the *place where a business is carried on* are formed from nouns denoting persons by adding the suffix **-īna** or **-īnum**.

sūtr-īna, F., *cobbler's shop*	**sūtor**, *cobbler*
tōnstr-īna, F., *barber's shop*	**tōnsor**, *barber*
pīstr-īnum, N., *gristmill*	**pīstor**, *miller*

e. Nouns denoting *rank* or *office* are formed from nouns by means of the masculine suffix **-ātus**.

magistr-ātus, *a civil office*	**magister**, *officer*
cōnsul-ātus, *office of consul*	**cōnsul**, *consul*
tribūn-ātus, *office of tribune*	**tribūnus**, *tribune*

f. Nouns denoting *characteristic* or *condition* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes:

-tia, -tās, -tūs, -tium

pueri-tia, F., *boyhood*	**puer**, *boy*
cīvi-tās, F., *citizenship*	**cīvis**, *citizen*
vir-tūs, F., *manhood*	**vir**, *man*
senec-tūs, F., *old age*	**senex**, *old man*
servi-tium, N., *servitude*	**servus**, *slave*
cōnsor-tium, N., *comradeship*	**cōnsors**, *comrade*

g. Nouns known as patronymics, indicating *descent* or *relationship*, are formed from Greek proper names, or names formed in imitation of the Greek, by means of the endings:

MASC. **-adēs, -idēs, -īdēs**
FEM. **-ēis, -ias, -is**

Anchīsi-adēs, *son of Anchises*	**Nēr-ēis**, *daughter of Nereus*
Tantal-idēs, *son of Tantalus*	**Thest-ias**, *daughter of Thestius*
Pēl-īdēs, *son of Peleus*	**Atlant-is**, *daughter of Atlas*

283. Nouns derived from Adjectives. Abstract nouns denoting *quality* or *condition* are formed from adjectives by means of the feminine suffixes:

-ia, -tās, -tia, -tiēs, -tūdō

audāc-ia, *boldness*	**audāx**, *bold*
boni-tās, *goodness*	**bonus**, *good*
trīsti-tia, *sadness*	**trīstis**, *sad*
sēgni-tiēs, *slowness*	**sēgnis**, *slow*
magni-tūdō, *greatness*	**magnus**, *great*

284. Nouns derived from Verbs. *a.* Nouns denoting the *agent* or *doer* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes:

MASC. **-tor (-sor)**
FEM. **-trīx**

can-tor, M., **can-trīx**, F., *singer*	**canere**, *sing*
vic-tor, M., **vic-trīx**, F., *victor*	**vincere**, *conquer*
tōn-sor, M., *barber*	**tondēre**, *shear*
petī-tor, M., *candidate*	**petere**, *seek*

1. A few nouns in **-tor** are formed from nouns.

viā-tor, *traveler*	**via**, *way*
iāni-tor, *doorkeeper*	**iānua**, *door*

b. Nouns denoting *action* or *its result* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes:

MASC. **-or, -tus (-sus)**
FEM. **-ēs, -iō, -mōnia, -tiō (-siō), -tūra**
NEUT. { **-ium, -men, -mentum, -mōnium**
-us (gen. **-eris** or **-oris**)

tim-or, *fear*	**timēre**, *fear*
am-or, *love*	**amāre**, *love*
audī-tus, *hearing*	**audīre**, *hear*
vī-sus, *seeing*	**vidēre**, *see*
sēn-sus, *feeling*	**sentīre**, *feel*
caed-ēs, *slaughter*	**caedere**, *kill*
leg-iō, *a collecting (levy), legion*	**legere**, *collect*
queri-mōnia, *complaint*	**querī**, *complain*
vocā-tiō, *calling*	**vocāre**, *call*
dīvī-siō, *division*	**dīvidere**, *divide*
scrīp-tūra, *writing*	**scrībere**, *write*
gaud-ium, *joy*	**gaudēre**, *rejoice*
certā-men, *contest*	**certāre**, *contend*
ōrnā-mentum, *ornament*	**ōrnāre**, *adorn*
testi-mōnium, *testimony*	**testārī**, *testify*
gen-us, *birth*	**gen-**, root of **gignere**, *bear*

c. Nouns denoting *means, instrument,* or *place* are formed from verbs by means of the neuter suffixes:

-bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum, -trum

pā-bulum, *fodder*	**pāscere,** *feed*
sta-bulum, *stall*	**stāre,** *stand*
vehi-culum, *wagon*	**vehere,** *carry*
dēlū-brum, *shrine*	**dēluere,** *cleanse*
sepul-crum, *tomb*	**sepelīre,** *bury*
claus-trum (***claud-trum**), *bar*	**claudere,** *shut*
arā-trum, *plow*	**arāre,** *plow*

1. A few masculines and feminines of the same formation occur.

fā-bula, *tale*	**fārī,** *speak*
fa-ber, *smith*	**facere,** *make*
late-bra, *hiding place*	**latēre,** *hide*
mulc-tra, *milk pail*	**mulgēre,** *milk*

B. ADJECTIVES

285. Adjectives derived from Nouns. *a.* Adjectives meaning *full of* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes:

-ōsus, -lēns, -lentus

fluctu-ōsus, *billowy*	**fluctus,** *billow*
fōrm-ōsus, *beautiful*	**fōrma,** *beauty*
perīcul-ōsus, *dangerous*	**perīculum,** *danger*
pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, *pestilent*	**pestis,** *pest*
vīno-lentus, vīn-ōsus, *given to drink*	**vīnum,** *wine*

b. Adjectives meaning *provided with* are formed from nouns by means of the suffix **-tus.**

togā-tus, *wearing a toga*	**toga,** *toga*
barbā-tus, *bearded*	**barba,** *beard*
turrī-tus, *turreted*	**turris,** *tower*
cornū-tus, *horned*	**cornū,** *horn*

c. Adjectives denoting *material* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes:

-eus, -āceus, -nus, -neus

aur-eus, *golden*	**aurum**, *gold*
ros-āceus, *of roses*	**rosa**, *rose*
acer-nus, *of maple*	**acer**, *maple*
ebur-neus, *of ivory*	**ebur**, *ivory*

d. Adjectives meaning *belonging to* are formed from nouns by means of the suffixes:

-ālis, -īlis, -ānus, -ēnus, -īnus, -nus
-āris, -ārius, -icus, -icius, -ius, -cus
-ester, -īvus, -ēnsis, -timus

1. From *common* nouns:

mort-ālis, *mortal*	**mors**, *death*
vir-īlis, *manly*	**vir**, *man*
mont-ānus, *of the mountains*	**mōns**, *mountain*
terr-ēnus, *earthly*	**terra**, *earth*
lībert-īnus, *of the class of freedmen*	**lībertus**, *one's freedman*
frāter-nus, *fraternal*	**frāter**, *brother*
vulg-āris, *commonplace*	**vulgus**, *common people*
legiōn-ārius, *legionary*	**legiō**, *legion*
bell-icus, *of war*	**bellum**, *war*
patr-icius, *patrician*	**pater**, *father*
rēg-ius, *royal*	**rēx**, *king*
cīvi-cus, *civic*	**cīvis**, *citizen*
silv-ester, *woody*	**silva**, *a wood*
aest-īvus, *of summer*	**aestās**, *summer*
for-ēnsis, *of the forum*	**forum**, *forum*
fīni-timus, *on the borders*	**fīnis**, *end, limit*

2. From *proper* nouns:

FROM NAMES OF *TOWNS*

Rōm-ānus, *Roman*	**Rōma**, *Rome*
Corinth-ius, *Corinthian*	**Corinthus**, *Corinth*
Cann-ēnsis, *of Cannæ*	**Cannae**, *Cannæ*
Athēni-ēnsis, *Athenian*	**Athēnae**, *Athens*

From Names of *Persons*

Sull-ānus, *of Sulla*	**Sulla**, *Sulla*
Mari-ānus, *of Marius*	**Marius**, *Marius*
Caesar-iānus, *of Cæsar*	**Caesar**, *Cæsar*
Plaut-īnus, *of Plautus*	**Plautus**, *Plautus*

Note 1. Observe that **-iānus** is sometimes used instead of **-ānus**.

From Names of *Countries*

Gall-icus, *Gallic*	**Gallia**, *Gaul*
Germān-icus, *German*	**Germānia**, *Germany*
Ital-icus, *Italian*	**Italia**, *Italy*
Āfr-icus, *African*	**Āfrica**, *Africa*

Note 2. From these adjectives are formed adjectives in **-ānus** meaning *stationed in* or *associated with* a country, but not native to it.

legiōnēs Gallicānae, *legions stationed in Gaul*	(but not made up of Gauls)
Scīpiō Āfricānus, *Scipio Africanus*	(so called from his victories in Africa)

286. Adjectives derived from Adjectives. These are mostly diminutives and are formed like diminutive nouns (§ 282. *a*).

parv-ulus, *very small*	**parvus**, *small*
pauper-culus, *rather poor*	**pauper**, *poor*
vet-ulus, *somewhat old*	**vetus**, *old*

287. Adjectives derived from Verbs. Adjectives are derived from verbs as follows:

a. Adjectives with *present participial meaning* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes:

-bundus, -cundus

vītā-bundus, *avoiding*	**vītāre**, *shun*
treme-bundus, *trembling*	**tremere**, *tremble*
mori-bundus, *dying, at the point of death*	**morī**, *die*
fā-cundus, *eloquent*	**fārī**, *speak*
īrā-cundus, *irascible*	cf. **īrāscī**, *be angry*

b. Adjectives expressing *characteristic* or *tendency* are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes:

-āx, -ulus

pugn-āx, *pugnacious*	**pugnāre**, *fight*
aud-āx, *bold*	**audēre**, *dare*
crēd-ulus, *credulous*	**crēdere**, *believe*
bib-ulus, *fond of drink*	**bibere**, *drink*

c. Adjectives expressing a *state* or *settled condition* are formed from verbs by means of the suffix **-dus.**

timi-dus, *timid*	**timēre**, *fear*
flōri-dus, *blooming*	**flōrēre**, *bloom*
cupi-dus, *desirous*	**cupere**, *desire*
avi-dus, *greedy*	**avēre**, *long for*

d. Adjectives expressing *capability* (generally passive) are formed from verbs by means of the suffixes:

-ilis, -bilis

frag-ilis, *breakable*, *frail*	**frangere**, *break*
fac-ilis, *able to be done*, *easy*	**facere**, *do*
crēdi-bilis, *capable of belief*, *credible*	**crēdere**, *believe*
amā-bilis, *lovable*	**amāre**, *love*

288. Adjectives derived from Adverbs. Adjectives are derived from adverbs by means of the suffixes:

-ernus, -ternus, -turnus, -tinus

hodi-ernus, *of to-day*	**hodiē**, *to-day*
hes-ternus, *of yesterday*	**herī**, *yesterday*
diū-turnus, *lasting*	**diū**, *long time*
crās-tinus, *of to-morrow*	**crās**, *to-morrow*

C. VERBS

289. Verbs derived from Nouns or Adjectives. Verbs were formed in Latin from almost every form of noun stem and adjective stem. Most of these verbs are of the first conjugation; but the other conjugations are also represented.

1ST CONJ.	**fugō, -āre,** *put to flight*; from **fuga,** *flight*
	piō, -āre, *expiate*; from **pius,** *pure*
	exsulō, -āre, *be in exile*; from **exsul,** *exile*
2D CONJ.	**albeō, -ēre,** *be white*; from **albus,** *white*
	clāreō, -ēre, *shine*; from **clārus,** *bright*
3D CONJ.	**metuō, -ere,** *fear*; from **metus,** *fear*
	statuō, -ere, *set up*; from **status,** *position*
4TH CONJ.	**fīniō, -īre,** *bound*; from **fīnis,** *end*
	custōdiō, -īre, *guard*; from **custōs,** *guardian*

290. Verbs derived from Verbs. Verbs derived from verbs are of four classes.

a. *Inceptives* or *Inchoatives*, denoting the *beginning* of an action, are formed by adding **-scō** to the present stem. They are of the third conjugation.

calē-scō, -ere, *grow warm*; from **caleō,** *be warm*
labā-scō, -ere, *begin to totter*; from **labō,** *totter*

NOTE. In some of these verbs no inceptive meaning is present: as, **poscō,** *demand*; **quiēscō,** *rest*; etc. Many are formed by analogy from nouns and adjectives.

b. *Intensives* or *Frequentatives*, denoting *forcible* or *repeated* action, are formed from the participial stem and end in **-tō** (**-sō**), **-itō**, or **-titō**. They are of the first conjugation.

iac-tō, -āre, *hurl*; from **iaciō,** *throw*
quas-sō, -āre, *shatter*; from **quatiō,** *shake*
vol-itō, -āre, *flit*; from **volō,** *fly*
dic-titō, -āre, *keep saying*; from **dīcō.** *say*

NOTE 1. Intensives from verbs of the first conjugation end in **-itō**, not **-ātō**: as, **rogitō,** from **rogō, -āre,** *ask.*

NOTE 2. Verbs of this formation sometimes show no intensive or frequentative meaning: as, **cantō,** *sing.*

1. Another form of intensives, of the third conjugation, ends in **-essō.**

cap-essō, -ere, *seize eagerly*; from **capiō,** *take*
fac-essō, -ere, *do earnestly*; from **faciō,** *do*

c. Diminutives, denoting *feeble* action, end in **-illō.** They are rare and of the first conjugation.

cant-illō, -āre, *chirp*; from **cantō,** *sing*
sorb-illō, -āre, *sip*; from **sorbeō,** *drink*

d. Desideratives, denoting *desire*, end in **-turiō** or **-suriō.** They are of the fourth conjugation, and only two are in common use:

par-turiō, -īre, *be in labor*; from **pariō,** *bear*
ē-suriō, -īre, *be hungry*; from **edō,** *eat*

II. COMPOUNDS

291. Compound words usually consist of two parts. The second part gives the essential meaning, and this is changed or modified in some way by the first part.

armi-ger, *armor-bearer*	**omni-potēns,** *omnipotent, all-powerful*

292. Compounds may be formed in three ways:

a. By the union of two or more words without change of form or meaning.

EXAMPLES: **pater-familiās,** *father of a family*; **senātūs-cōnsultum,** *decree of the senate*; **iūs-iūrandum,** *oath*; **aquae-ductus,** *aqueduct*; **hāc-tenus,** *thus far*; **quem-ad-modum,** *in what way*; **bene-faciō,** *benefit.*

NOTE. In this case the words retain their identity and are often written separately. There is no real *composition*, but merely *juxtaposition.* These are sometimes called syntactic compounds.

b. By prefixing an indeclinable particle, usually a preposition.

EXAMPLES: **per-paucī,** *very few*; **sub-rūsticus,** *rather clownish*; **in-imīcus,** *unfriendly*; **ad-vena,** *stranger*; **inter-ficiō,** *kill*; **ē-discō,** *learn by heart*; **amb-iō,** *go about*; **sē-cernō,** *separate.*

NOTE. In this case the meaning of the compound is generally unlike that of the component parts used separately.

c. By uniting two or more stems and adding inflectional suffixes when necessary.

EXAMPLES: **magnanimus** (**magno-** + **animus**), *high-minded*; **agricola** (**agro-** + **cola**), *farmer*; **carnifex** (**carn-** + **fex**), *executioner*; **prīnceps** (**prīmo-** + **ceps**), *chief*.

NOTE. In this case the stem vowel of the first part of the compound is dropped before a vowel and appears as **i** before consonants. Consonant stems usually add **i**.

293. Some compounds are derived from phrases so changed as to force them into the inflections of nouns.

prō-cōnsul, *proconsul* (for **prō cōnsule**, *instead of a consul*)
trium-vir, *triumvir* (singular, from **trium virōrum**, *of three men*)

INDECLINABLE PREFIXES

294. The indeclinable prefixes used in forming compounds are either *separable* or *inseparable*. Separable prefixes may generally be used separately as adverbs or prepositions. Inseparable prefixes are never so used.

Prepositions in composition sometimes retain their original adverbial sense.

a. **Separable Prefixes**, used also as prepositions or adverbs, are:

ā, ab, abs, *away*	**ā-mittō**, *send away*
ad, *to*, *towards*	**ad-dūcō**, *lead to*
ante, *before*	**ante-currō**, *run before*
circum, *around*	**circum-eō**, *go around*
com-, con- (**cum**), *together*, *forcibly*, *completely*	**con-veniō**, *come together* **cōn-ficiō**, *do completely*, *finish*
dē, *down*, *utterly*	**dē-spiciō**, *look down upon*, *despise* **dē-struō**, *destroy*
ē, ex, *out*	**ē-iciō**, *throw out*
in (with verbs), *in*, *on*, *against*	**in-eō**, *go in* **īn-ferō**, *bear against*
inter, *between*, *together* (sometimes causing interruption or ruin)	**inter-ficiō**, *kill* **inter-rumpō**, *interrupt*

intrō, *within*	**intrō-mittō**, *send within*
ob, obs-, *towards, to meet, against*	**op-pugnō**, *fight against*
per, *through, thoroughly*	**per-veniō**, *come through, arrive* **per-discō**, *learn thoroughly*
post, *after*	**post-habeō**, *regard after, esteem less*
prae, *before*	**prae-ferō**, *bear before, prefer*
praeter, *beside, past*	**praeter-eō**, *go past, pass by*
prō, prōd-, *forth, before*	**prō-ferō**, *bear forth* **prōd-eō**, *go forth*
retrō, *back*	**retrō-cēdō**, *go back*
sub, subs-, *under, somewhat*	**sub-eō**, *go under* **sub-trīstis**, *somewhat sad*
super, *over, upon*	**super-fluō**, *overflow*
suprā, *over*	**suprā-scandō**, *climb over*
trāns, trā-, *across*	**trān-siliō**, *leap across* **trā-dō**, *betray*

b. **Inseparable Prefixes**, used only in composition, are:

amb-, am-, *about, around*	**amb-iō** (§ 259. *c*), *go about*
dis-,[1] **dī-**, *apart, asunder*	**dis-cēdō**, *go away*
in-, *not, un-* (common with adjectives and adverbs, and to be distinguished from the preposition in usually compounded with verbs)	**im-memor**, *unmindful* **in-eptus**, *clumsy*
por-, *forth*	**por-tendō**, *stretch forth*
re-, red-, *back, again*	**re-vertō**, *turn back* **red-eō**, *go back*
sē-, sēd-, *apart*	**sē-dūcō**, *lead apart* **sēd-itiō**, *revolt* (lit. *a going apart*)
vē-, *not, without*	**vē-sānus**, *not sane*

On the formation of adverbs see §§ 269 ff.

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[1] **dis-** may have a negative or intensive meaning: as, **dis-pliceō**, *displease*; **dis-perdō**, *ruin utterly*.

PART III. SYNTAX

295. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.

THE SENTENCE

296. A sentence is a group of words expressing a complete thought. Sentences are of four kinds:

1. Declarative Sentences make a statement.

   canis currit, *the dog runs*

2. Interrogative Sentences ask a question.

   canisne currit, *does the dog run?*

3. Exclamatory Sentences have the force of an exclamation.

   quam celeriter currit canis, *how fast the dog runs!*

4. Imperative Sentences express a command, exhortation, or entreaty.

   dēsilīte, commīlitōnēs, *jump down, comrades*
   eāmus, *let us go*
   currat canis, *let the dog run*

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

297. Every sentence consists of a subject and a predicate.

The Subject is the *person or thing about which something is said.*

The Predicate is *that which is said of the subject.*

Thus, in **equitēs ad Caesarem vēnērunt**, *the cavalry came to Cæsar*, **equitēs** is the subject, and **ad Caesarem vēnērunt** is the predicate.

a. The subject may be implied in the personal ending of the verb, and thus a sentence may consist of a single word.

sedē-mus, *we are sitting*	**curri-tis**, *you are running*
crēdu-nt, *they believe*	**rīs-istī**, *you laughed*

b. The subject may be some word or group of words used as a noun.

haec perficere **est facile**, *to accomplish these things is easy*
accidit *ut plēna lūna esset*, *it happened that the moon was full*

SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

298. A Simple Sentence contains but one subject and one predicate.

Caesar Gallōs vīcit, *Cæsar conquered the Gauls*

299. A Compound Sentence consists of two or more independent simple sentences related in thought. Each member of a compound sentence is called a *clause*, and the clauses are said to be *coördinate*, that is, "of equal rank," and are often joined by coördinating conjunctions (§ 279. *a*).

Caesar Gallōs vīcit et Rōmānī gaudēbant, *Cæsar conquered the Gauls and the Romans rejoiced*
vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, *I came, I saw, I conquered.* [Observe that this compound sentence consists of three independent coördinate clauses, related in thought but not joined by conjunctions.]

300. A Complex Sentence consists of an independent simple sentence, known as the principal or main clause, modified by one or more dependent sentences, known as the subordinate or dependent clauses.

Rōmānī gāvīsī sunt quod Caesar Gallōs vīcerat, *the Romans rejoiced because Cæsar had conquered the Gauls*

Here the complex sentence consists of the principal or main clause **Rōmānī gāvīsī sunt**, and the subordinate or dependent clause **quod Caesar Gallōs vīcerat.**

NOTE. A complex sentence often contains more than one subordinate clause, and a subordinate clause may itself be modified by other subordinate clauses.

Labiēnō imperāvit ut pontem interscinderet et equitātum praemitteret, *he commanded Labienus to destroy the bridge and send forward the cavalry.* [Two subordinate clauses modifying the principal clause **Labiēnō imperāvit**.]

Labiēnō imperāvit ut interscinderet pontem quī flūmen iungeret, *he commanded Labienus to destroy the bridge which spanned the river.* [Two subordinate clauses, of which **quī . . . iungeret** is subordinate to **ut . . . pontem**, which is itself subordinate to the principal clause **Labiēnō imperāvit**.]

PHRASES AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

301. A Phrase is a group of connected words not containing a subject and a predicate.

302. A phrase is often equivalent to a part of speech, especially to an adjective or an adverb.

Thus, in the sentence **vir fuit *summā nōbilitāte***, *he was a man of the highest nobility*, the words **summā nōbilitāte**, *of the highest nobility*, are equivalent to the adjective **nōbilis**, *noble* (or **nōbilissimus**, *very noble*), and are called an *adjective phrase.*

Again, in the sentence ***magnā celeritāte* vēnit**, *he came with great speed*, the words **magnā celeritāte**, *with great speed*, are equivalent to the adverb **celeriter**, *quickly* (or **celerrimē**, *very quickly*), and are called an *adverbial phrase.*

303. A Subordinate Clause always has a finite verb or an infinitive in the predicate, and takes the place of some part of speech in its relation to the principal clause.

304. There are three kinds of subordinate clauses: noun (or substantive) clauses, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses.

a. **A noun (or substantive) clause** takes the place of a noun.

fierī potest *ut tū rēctē sentiās*, *it is possible that you think rightly.* [Here **ut tū rēctē sentiās** is a noun clause, the subject of **potest**.]

b. **An adjective clause** defines or modifies some noun or pronoun and is introduced by a relative pronoun or adverb.

Cōnsidius, *quī reī mīlitāris perītissimus habēbātur,* cum explōrātōribus praemittitur, *Considius, who was considered very skilful in warfare, is sent in advance with scouts.* [Here the clause **quī . . . habēbātur** is equivalent to an adjective modifying **Cōnsidius.**]
agrī *ubi hodiē est haec urbs*, *the fields where to-day this city stands*

c. **An adverbial clause** expresses some adverbial relation, such as purpose, result, time, or cause.

veniunt *ut pācem petant*, *they come to seek peace.* [The adverbial clause **ut . . . petant** expresses purpose.]

NOTE. A subordinate clause is incapable, by itself, of expressing a complete meaning.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS

PREDICATE NOUNS

305. A predicate noun is a noun in the predicate *describing* or *defining* the subject. It is connected with the subject by a form of **sum** or by an intransitive or passive verb.

a. The verb **sum** thus used as a connective is called the *copula.* When an intransitive or passive verb is used in the same way, it is called a *copulative* verb.

Caesar *erat* cōnsul, *Cæsar was consul*
ego patrōnus *exstitī*, *I have come forward as an advocate*
Caesar cōnsul *creātus est*, *Cæsar was elected consul*

306. A predicate noun agrees in case with the subject.

Ariovistus erat *rēx*, *Ariovistus was king*
Cicerō *ōrātor* clārissimus habitus est, *Cicero was regarded as a most distinguished orator*
somnus est *imāgō* mortis, *sleep is the image of death*

307. A predicate noun referring to two or more singular nouns is in the plural.

> **Claudius et Servīlius *cōnsulēs* factī sunt**, *Claudius and Servilius were elected consuls*

308. When a predicate noun has different forms for different genders, it agrees with the subject in gender as well as in case.

> **ūsus *magister* est**, *experience is an instructor*
> **historia est *magistra***, *history is an instructress*

309. In addition to **sum** the verbs most commonly used to connect a predicate noun with the subject are:

a. Intransitive verbs of *becoming*, *appearing*, *remaining*, etc.: as, **ēvādō, appāreō, maneō.**

b. The passive of verbs of *making*, *calling*, *choosing*, *regarding*, etc.: as, **creor, appellor, dēligor, habeor, iūdicor.**

> ***homō* magnus ēvāserat**, *he had become a great man*
> **pater ā senātū populī Rōmānī *amīcus* appellātus erat**, *his father had been called friend by the senate of the Roman people*
> ***ducēs* iī dēliguntur**, *those* (men) *are chosen as leaders*

310. Sum in the sense of *exist* is not a copula, but makes a complete predicate without a predicate noun or adjective. It is then called the *substantive* verb.

> ***sunt* virī fortēs**, *there are* (exist) *brave men*
> ***est* classis in portū**, *there is a fleet in the harbor*

APPOSITIVES

311. A noun used to *describe* another, and standing in the same part of the sentence with the noun described, is called an appositive, and is said to be *in apposition*.

> **Cassius *cōnsul* occīsus est**, *Cassius, the consul, was killed*
> **persuādent Rauracīs *fīnitimīs***, *they persuade the Rauraci, their neighbors*

312. An appositive agrees in case with the noun which it describes.

oppidum Rēmōrum nōmine *Bibrax* aberat mīlia passuum octō, *a town of the Remi, Bibrax by name, was eight miles away.* [Here the appositive belongs to the *subject.*]

Caesar T. Labiēnum *lēgātum* mīsit, *Cæsar sent Titus Labienus, the lieutenant.* [Here both nouns are in the *predicate.*]

a. An appositive generally agrees with its noun in gender and number when it can.

sequuntur nātūram *optimam ducem*, *they follow nature, the best guide.* [Observe that **ducem** is here *feminine.*]

omnium doctrīnārum *inventrīcēs* Athēnae, *Athens, the discoverer of all learning.* [Observe that **inventrīcēs** is *plural* and *feminine.*]

b. Words expressing *parts* may be in apposition with a noun denoting the whole. This is called *partitive* apposition, and is especially common with **quisque, uterque, alius . . . alius**, and **alter . . . alter.**

Hannibal trānsfugās in suam *quemque* cīvitātem dīmīsit, *Hannibal sent the deserters each to his own state*

duo cōnsulēs eius annī *alter* ferrō, *alter* morbō periit, *the two consuls of that year perished, the one by the sword, the other by disease*

Note. For the explanatory genitive used instead of an appositive see § 335.

313. Urbs or **oppidum** in apposition with the locative case (§ 74. *a*) of the name of a town is put in the ablative, with or without the preposition **in.**

Antiochīae, celebrī quondam *urbe*, *at Antioch, once a famous city*

Albae cōnstitērunt, *in urbe* mūnītā, *they halted at Alba, a fortified town*

314. A clause or an infinitive may be used as an appositive.

illud etiam restiterat, *ut tē in iūs ēdūcerent*, *this too remained — that they should drag you into court*

stultitia haec sit, *mē tibi meam operam pollicitārī*, *this would be folly, for me to offer you my assistance*

315. An appositive is frequently equivalent to a relative clause, or to a clause of time or cause.. Especially common in this construction are official titles and words like **adulēscēns**, **puer**, **senex**, etc., expressing time of life.

Cicerō *cōnsul* Catilīnam ex urbe ēiēcit, *Cicero,* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{who}\\ \textit{since he}\\ \textit{when he}\end{array}\right\}$ *was consul, expelled Catiline from the city*

Catō *senex* historiam scrībere īnstituit, *Cato began to write history when he was an old man*

THE NOMINATIVE CASE

316. The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative case. The finite verb includes all forms of the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative.

***Caesar* Rhēnum trānsīre dēcrēverat**, *Cæsar had determined to cross the Rhine*

a. The subject is usually a noun or a pronoun, but it may be a clause or an infinitive.

accidit *ut esset lūna plēna*, *it happened that it was full moon.* [The subject is the clause **ut esset** etc.]

***dolēre* malum est**, *to suffer pain is an evil.* [The subject is the infinitive **dolēre**.]

317. Impersonal verbs and the passive of many intransitive verbs may be used without any subject expressed.

pluit, *it rains*

sīc *ītur* ad astra, *thus men rise to the stars* (**ītur**, lit. *there is going*)

ācriter *pugnātum est*, *there was sharp fighting* (lit. *it was fought sharply*)

318. A personal pronoun, unless it is emphatic, is regularly omitted as subject, being implied in the personal ending of the verb.

significāmus quid sentiāmus, *we show what we think*

319. The nominative may be used in exclamations, but the accusative is more common (cf. § 436).

ēn dextra fidēsque, *lo, the faith and plighted word!*

NOTE. For the nominative used instead of the vocative see § 322.

320. The nominative is used as the subject of the historical infinitive (§ 844).

***Caesar* Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre**, *Cæsar demanded grain from the Hædui*

THE VOCATIVE CASE

321. The vocative is the case of direct address.

dēsilīte, *commīlitōnēs*, *leap down, comrades*
ēgredere ex urbe, *Catilīna*, *depart from the city, Catiline*

322. The nominative is sometimes used instead of the vocative.

audī tū, *populus* Albānus, *hear thou, people of Alba*

323. In poetry the nominative of an adjective is sometimes used with a vocative.

nāte, mea magna potentia *sōlus*, *my son, thou alone my great power*
prōice tēla, sanguis *meus*, *cast away thy weapons, son of mine*

THE GENITIVE CASE

324. The genitive is used with nouns, adjectives, verbs, and rarely with adverbs.[1]

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[1] The genitive case was used with nouns, adjectives, and verbs from the earliest period of the language to express a great variety of ideas. With nouns and adjectives it served to define or complete the meaning in any way suggested by the context, and it is this adnominal use that distinguishes the genitive from the other cases. Its use with verbs is still more difficult of exact definition. There being, then, no single fundamental value attached to the genitive, it follows that its constructions are extremely hard to classify. The categories given below include most of its recognized uses, and serve as a grammatical convenience; but many expressions remain which do not logically belong under any recognized category.

325. The relation of the genitive to the word that it limits is generally expressed in English by the preposition *of* or by the possessive case; but other translations must often be used.

librī ***Cicerōnis***, *the books of Cicero* or *Cicero's books*
talentum ***aurī***, *a talent of gold*
vir summae ***virtūtis***, *a man of the greatest courage*
vacātiō ***labōris***, *a respite from toil*
petītiō ***cōnsulātūs***, *candidacy for the consulship*
rēgnum ***cīvitātis***, *sovereignty over the state*
perītus ***reī mīlitāris***, *skilful in warfare*
īnsuētus ***labōris***, *unused to toil*
capitis **damnātus**, *condemned on a capital charge*
cāritās ***tuī***, *affection for you*

326. Most of the uses of the genitive may be classified as either *subjective* or *objective*.

I. The Subjective Genitive is generally used with nouns, and denotes the subject of the action or feeling expressed by the modified word, or the author, cause, or possessor of something.

amor ***patris***, *the father's love*
iter ***exercitūs***, *the army's march*
ōrātiōnēs ***Cicerōnis***, *Cicero's orations*
domus ***Caesaris***, *Cæsar's house*

II. The Objective Genitive is used with certain kinds of nouns, adjectives, and verbs, and denotes the object toward which the action or feeling expressed by the modified word is directed.

amor ***patriae***, *love of country*
famēs ***aurī***, *greed for gold*
metus ***deōrum***, *the fear of the gods*
avidus ***laudis***, *desirous of praise*
dux memor ***vestrī***, *a leader mindful of you*
vīvōrum **meminī**, *I remember the living*

NOTE. When a genitive modifies a noun denoting action or feeling, the context will generally show whether the genitive is *subjective* or *objective*. For example, if **amor patris**, *love of a father*, means that the father loves, the genitive is *subjective*; on the other hand, if the meaning intended is that the father is the object of some one's love, the genitive is *objective*.

I. The Subjective Genitive

327. The subjective genitive includes the following constructions:

1. Possessive genitive (§ 328).
2. Explanatory genitive (§ 335).
3. Genitive of the charge (§ 336).
4. Genitive of description (§ 338).
5. Genitive of measure (§ 340).
6. Genitive of indefinite value (§ 341).
7. Genitive of the whole, or partitive genitive (§ 342).
8. Genitive of material (§ 348).
9. Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty or want (§ 349).
10. Genitive with adjectives denoting similarity or connection and their opposites (§ 351).
11. Genitive with **rēfert** and **interest** (§ 352).

328. Possessive Genitive. The possessive genitive denotes the person or thing to which something belongs or is in some way related.

librī *Cicerōnis*, *Cicero's books*
***Ariovistī* exercitus**, *the army of Ariovistus*
***Alexandrī* equus**, *Alexander's horse*
perīcula *proeliī*, *the dangers of the battle*

Note. Here belongs the genitive of the *person acting* or *feeling*.

itinera *Caesaris*, *Cæsar's marches*
timor *cōnsulis*, *the consul's fear*

329. A possessive adjective is regularly used instead of the possessive genitive of a personal or reflexive pronoun and may be used for the possessive genitive of a noun.

liber *meus*, *my book*; not **liber meī**
fīlius *suus*, *his son*; not **fīlius suī**
mūniceps *Amerīnus*, *a citizen of the free town Ameria*

330. The possessive genitive often stands in the predicate, especially after the verb **sum**.

In this construction the genitive may express ownership or various kindred ideas: as, *the part of*, *duty of*, *characteristic of*.

> **haec domus est *patris* meī**, *this house is my father's*
> **summa laus *Brūtī* est**, *the highest praise belongs to Brutus*
> ***timidī* est optāre necem**, *it is the coward's part to wish for death*
> ***sapientis* est pauca loquī**, *it is characteristic of a wise man to say little*

331. The genitive with **causā**, **grātiā**,[1] and **īnstar** is possessive in character.

> ***patriae* causā**, *for the sake of the fatherland*
> ***amīcī* grātiā**, *for the sake of my friend*
> **equus īnstar *montis***, *a horse as big as a mountain* (lit. *a horse the likeness of a mountain*)

NOTE. With **causā** and **grātiā**, *for the sake of*, the genitive always *precedes*.

332. Here belong the genitives expressing the relation *connected with*.

> **difficultātēs *bellī* gerendī**, *the difficulties of* (i.e. connected with) *waging the war*

333. The noun on which the genitive depends is sometimes omitted when it may be readily supplied.

> **Flaccus *Claudī***, *Flaccus* (the slave) *of Claudius*
> ***Hectoris* Andromachē**, *Andromache* (the wife) *of Hector*
> **ventum est ad *Vestae***, *we came to Vesta's* (temple)

NOTE. Observe the similar English usage in such expressions as *St. John's* (church), *St. Paul's* (school), *Wanamaker's* (store).

334. The English use of *that* in such sentences as "the fleet of the Britons is larger than *that* of the Gauls" has no parallel in

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[1] That the genitive preceding **causā** and **grātiā** is subjective and possessive is made clear by observing that **patriae causā** is equivalent in meaning to the English "in our country's cause," and **amīcī grātiā** to "because of the favor which my friend inspires."

Latin. In Latin the noun is repeated, or else it is dropped, leaving the genitive without a governing word.

> **classis Britannōrum maior est quam *classis* Gallōrum** or **classis Britannōrum maior est quam Gallōrum**, *the fleet of the Britons is larger than that of the Gauls*

335. Explanatory Genitive. The genitive is sometimes used instead of an appositive (§ 311), to explain or define the meaning of a noun.

> **oppidum *Genāvae***, *the town of Geneva* (for **oppidum Genāva**)
> **vōx *voluptātis***, *the word (of) pleasure* (for **vōx voluptās**)

336. Genitive of the Charge. Verbs of *accusing*, *condemning*, and *acquitting* take the genitive of the charge.[1]

> **arguit mē *fūrtī***, *he accuses me of theft*
> ***pecūniae* pūblicae damnātus est**, *he was condemned for embezzlement*
> ***improbitātis* absolūtus est**, *he was acquitted of dishonesty*

***a*.** The ablative with **dē** is often used instead of the genitive.

> ***dē ambitū* condemnātus est**, *he was condemned for bribery*

337. The *penalty* is regularly expressed by the ablative (§ 473), though the genitives **capitis**, **pecūniae**, and a few others occur.

> **tertiā *parte* agrī damnātī sunt**, *they were condemned* (to pay) *a third part of their land*
> ***capitis* damnātus**, *condemned to death*
> ***pecūniae* damnātus**, *condemned* (to pay) *money*
> **longī *labōris* damnātus**, *condemned to long labor*

338. Genitive of Description. The genitive of a noun with an adjective in agreement is often used to describe a person or thing.

> **vir magnae *sapientiae***, *a man of great wisdom*
> **eius *modī* nāvēs**, *ships of that sort*
> **huius *generis* domus**, *a house of this kind*
> **puer ēgregiae *indolis***, *a boy of remarkable ability*

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[1] This genitive is often explained as depending on **crīmine** (*charge*), or a similar word, understood. Sometimes **crīmine** is expressed, but not in early Latin, a fact which renders this explanation doubtful.

a. The genitive of description frequently stands in the predicate.

> **tantae *mōlis* erat Rōmānam condere gentem,** *(of) such a task it was to found the Roman nation*

NOTE. The ablative is used to describe a *quality* more frequently than the genitive (see § 466). In general the genitive is used rather of *permanent* and *essential*, the ablative of *incidental* and *external*, characteristics.

339. Included under the genitive of description are the genitive of measure and the genitive of indefinite value.

340. Genitive of Measure. The genitive with a numeral is used to define *measures of length*, *depth*, etc.

> **fossa *trium pedum*,** *a trench of three feet* (in depth)
> **puer *decem annōrum*,** *a boy of ten years*
> **iter *ūnīus diēī*,** *a march of one day*

341. Genitive of Indefinite Value. The genitive of a few nouns and adjectives denotes indefinite value.

> **nōn *floccī* faciō,** *I don't care a straw*
> **istoc *nihilī* pendō,** *I care nothing for it*
> ***tantī* Gracchum fēcit,** *he valued Gracchus so highly*
> **auctōritās eius in hīs regiōnibus *magnī* habēbātur,** *his influence in these districts was considered of great weight*

NOTE. Among such genitives are the nouns **floccī**, *a straw* (lit. *a bit of wool*); **naucī**, *a nutshell*; **nihilī**, *nothing*; and the adjectives **magnī**, **plūris**, **plūrimī**, **parvī**, **minōris**, **minimī**, **tantī**, and **quantī**.

a. The genitives **tantī**, **quantī**, **plūris**, and **minōris** are used with verbs of *buying* and *selling* to denote *indefinite price.*

> ***quantī* ēmptum est,** *at what price was it bought?*

NOTE. Definite price is expressed by the ablative. See § 470.

342. Genitive of the Whole (Partitive Genitive). The genitive is used to denote the *whole* of which a *part* is taken.

This is often called the partitive genitive. The word denoting the *part* may be a noun, pronoun, adjective used substantively, or an adverb.

magna pars *nāvium*, *a great part of the ships*
nēmō *eōrum*, *not one of them*
decem mīlia *passuum*, *ten thousand paces* (lit. *ten thousands of paces*)
quis *mortālium*, *who of mortals?*
aliquid *bonī*, *something good* (of good)
quis *vestrum*, *who of you?*
quid *novī*, *what news* (of new)?
omnium *ōrātōrum* praestantissimus, *the most distinguished of all orators*
multī *cīvium*, *many of the citizens*
minor *frātrum*, *the younger of the brothers*
multum *pecūniae*, *much money*
eō *miseriārum*, *to that* (pitch) *of misery*

NOTE. The partitive genitive is not used with words modified by prepositions nor with cases other than the nominative and accusative.

ad tantum *studium*, *to such zeal*; not **ad tantum studī**
nimiā *voluptāte*, *with excessive pleasure*; not **nimiā voluptātis**

343. Certain adverbs are used with the genitive of the whole like substantives. These are especially **nimis**, *too much*; **parum**, *too little*; **satis**, *enough*; and adverbs of place.

nimis *lūcis*, *too much light* (of light)
parum *sapientiae*. *too little wisdom* (of wisdom)
satis *pecūniae*, *enough money* (of money)
ubinam *gentium* sumus, *where in the world* (where of nations) *are we?*
nusquam *gentium*, *nowhere on earth* (of nations)

NOTE. An extension of this usage, with complete loss of the partitive idea, is seen in the expressions **prīdiē eius *diēī***, *on the day before that day*; and **postrīdiē eius *diēī***, *on the day after that day*.

344. The ablative with **ē**, **ex**, or **dē** is often used instead of the genitive of the whole, *regularly* with cardinal numerals (except **mīlia**) and *usually* with **quīdam**.

ūnus *ex tribūnīs*, *one of the tribunes*
quīdam *ex mīlitibus*, *certain of the soldiers*

345. Words including the *whole* are not used with the partitive genitive, but with a case in agreement.

tōta ***urbs***, *the whole of the city*
nōs **omnēs**, *all of us* (we all); not **omnēs nostrum**
quot sunt ***hostēs***, *how many of the enemy are there?*

NOTE. The explanation of this is obvious from § 342. If the *whole* is taken, no *partitive* idea is logical.

346. The English idiom uses *of* in certain common phrases (like *the middle of*, *the top of*, *the end of*, etc.) in which the Latin has an adjective in agreement.

media ***urbs***, *the middle of the city*
summus ***mōns***, *the top of the mountain*
extrēma ***aestās***, *the end of the summer*

347. Adjectives of the third declension are rarely found in the partitive genitive, but agree directly with the nouns they modify.

nihil ***grave***, *nothing serious*; not **nihil gravis**
quid ***ūtile***, *what advantage*; not **quid ūtilis**

348. Genitive of Material. The genitive may denote the *material* of which a thing consists or is made.

talentum ***aurī***, *a talent of gold*
flūmina ***lactis***, *rivers of milk*
nāvis ***aeris***, *a ship of bronze*

NOTE. The genitive of material is an extension of the genitive of the whole.

a. Material is often expressed by the ablative with **ex**. See § 452.

349. Genitive of Plenty or Want. Adjectives and verbs of plenty or want sometimes govern the genitive.

plēnus ***fideī***, *full of loyalty*
virtūtis **expers**, *devoid of virtue*
convīvium ***vīcīnōrum*** **compleō**, *I fill up the banquet with my neighbors*
implentur veteris ***Bacchī***, *they take their fill of old wine*
auxiliī **tuī indigeō**, *I have need of your aid*

NOTE. This construction is an extension of the genitive of the whole.

350. Plenty or want is more usually denoted by the ablative (see § 469. *d*). Words preferring the genitive are the adjectives **expers, inops, egēnus,** and **plēnus,** and the verb **indigeō.**

351. Genitive with Adjectives of Similarity or Connection. Certain adjectives denoting similarity or connection and their opposites may take the genitive.

Among these are **similis, dissimilis, pār, dispār, contrārius, adfīnis, proprius, commūnis.**

> **Crassus *Cȳrī* et *Alexandrī* similis esse voluit,** *Crassus wished to be like Cyrus and Alexander*
> **id vitium nōn proprium *senectūtis* est,** *that fault is not characteristic of old age*
> **haec quaestiō commūnis est omnium *philosophōrum*,** *this question is common to all philosophers*

Note. These adjectives are often found with other constructions, especially with the dative (cf. § 397); but the genitive is more usual with **proprius.** In early Latin **similis** was construed with the genitive only, but later the dative became more and more frequent and in post-Augustan Latin displaced the genitive almost entirely.

352. Genitive with *rēfert* and *interest*. With the impersonal verbs **rēfert** and **interest** the person or thing interested is denoted by the genitive.[1]

But instead of the genitive of the personal pronouns (**meī, tuī, suī,** etc.), the ablative singular feminine of the corresponding possessive (**meā, tuā, suā,** etc.) is used.[2]

> ***Caesaris* interest,** *it is to Cæsar's interest*
> **interest *rēgis* tuērī subditōs,** *it is of interest to a king to protect his subjects*
> ***meā* rēfert,** *it is to my interest, it matters to me*
> ***nostrā* interest,** *it is to our interest, it matters to us*

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[1] In early Latin **rēfert** is more frequent than **interest,** but is rare at all periods with the genitive of the person.

[2] No wholly satisfactory solution of the origin of this construction has been found.

a. The *subject* of the interest is denoted by a neuter pronoun, an infinitive, or a substantive clause.

> ***hoc*** **Caesaris interest**, *this is to Cæsar's interest*
> ***vincere Gallōs*** **Caesaris interest**, *to conquer the Gauls is to Cæsar's interest*
> **reī pūblicae interest *ut Caesar salvus sit***, *Cæsar's safety is to the interest of the state*

b. The *degree* of the interest is denoted by a genitive of indefinite value, by an adverb, or by the neuter accusative of an adjective used adverbially.

$$\left.\begin{array}{r}\textbf{\textit{magnī}}\\ \textbf{\textit{maximē}}\\ \textbf{\textit{multum}}\end{array}\right\}\textbf{Caesaris interest, }\textit{it is}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{greatly}\\ \textit{exceedingly}\\ \textit{much}\end{array}\right\}\textit{to Cæsar's interest}$$

c. The *object* to be gained by securing the subject of the interest is expressed by the accusative with **ad**.

> ***ad glōriam*** **vincere Gallōs Caesaris interest**, *to conquer the Gauls is of interest to Cæsar for* (the sake of his) *fame*
> **fortiter pugnare meā et omnium cīvium *ad salūtem* patriae magnī rēfert**, *to fight bravely is of great importance to me and to all citizens for the safety of our country*

NOTE. Very rarely the *person* interested is expressed by **ad** and the accusative, or (with **rēfert**) by the dative.

> **quid id *ad mē* rēfert**, *what difference does that make to me?*
> **quid rēferat intrā nātūrae fīnīs *vīventī***, *what difference does it make to one living within the bounds of nature?*

II. The Objective Genitive

353. The objective genitive includes the following constructions:

1. The genitive with nouns expressing action or feeling (§ 354).
2. The genitive of application (§ 356).
3. The genitive with adjectives expressing action or feeling (§ 357).
4. The genitive with certain verbs (§ 358).

354. Genitive with Nouns expressing Action or Feeling. The objective genitive is used to denote the *object of an action or feeling expressed by a noun.*

cāritās ***tuī***, *affection for you*
memoria ***nostrī***, *recollection of me*
contentiō ***honōrum***, *struggle for office*
dēsīderium ***ōtī***, *longing for rest*
amor ***patriae***, *love of country*
metus ***hostium***, *fear of the enemy* (i.e. fear of which the enemy is the object; cf. § 328. N.)

355. Instead of the objective genitive a possessive pronoun, a descriptive adjective, or a noun with a preposition, is sometimes used.

mea **invidia**, *my unpopularity* (i.e. the unpopularity of which I am the object), instead of **invidia meī**
neque neglegentiā ***tuā*** **neque id odiō fēcit** ***tuō***, *he did this neither from neglect of you nor from hatred toward you*
metus ***hostīlis***, *fear of the enemy* (hostile fear), instead of **metus hostium**
odium ***in Antōnium***, *hate of Antony*, instead of **odium Antōnī**
amor ***ergā tē***, *love for you*, instead of **amor tuī**

356. Genitive of Application. The objective genitive may be used to denote that to which the quality expressed by a noun or adjective applies.

praestantia ***virtūtis***, *preëminence in virtue*
pauper ***aquae***, *poor in water*
integer ***vītae scelerisque*** **pūrus**, *upright in life and free from guilt*
fessī ***rērum***, *weary of hardships*

NOTE. This construction is freely used by the poets and later writers, but is rare in Ciceronian prose.

357. Genitive with Adjectives expressing Action or Feeling. The objective genitive is used to denote the *object of an action or feeling expressed by an adjective* whose meaning would otherwise be incomplete.

Such adjectives are especially those denoting *desire*, *knowledge*, *skill*, *memory*, *power*, *participation*, and their opposites; also participial adjectives in **-ns** and certain verbals in **-āx**.

cupidus ***rērum novārum***, *desirous of a revolution*
īnsuētus ***nāvigandī***, *unacquainted with navigation*
perītus ***bellī***, *skilled in war*
immemor ***beneficī***, *forgetful of a favor*
potēns ***tempestātum***, *powerful over the storms*
coniūrātiōnis **participēs**, *sharing in the conspiracy*
patiēns ***frīgoris***, *enduring of cold*
tenāx ***prōpositī***, *steadfast of purpose*

NOTE 1. With verbals in **-āx** the genitive is found only in poetry and in late prose.

NOTE 2. The poets and later writers, especially Tacitus, use the genitive with almost any adjective to denote that *with reference to which* the quality exists. The construction demanded in classic prose would be the ablative of respect (§ 478), hence this genitive is sometimes called the genitive of respect.

callidus ***reī mīlitāris*** (Tacitus), *skilled in the science of war*
nōtus ***animī paternī*** (Horace), *famed for a paternal spirit*

358. Genitive with Verbs. Verbs of remembering and forgetting — **meminī, reminīscor, oblīvīscor** — may take the objective genitive.[1]

a. When the object is a *person*, **meminī** takes either the genitive or the accusative, **oblīvīscor** only the genitive in prose, but the accusative occurs occasionally in poetry.

ipse ***suī*** **meminerat**, *he was mindful of himself*
vīvōrum **meminī nec** ***Epicūrī*** **licet oblīvīscī**, *I remember the living and I must not forget Epicurus*
Cinnam **meminī**, *I remember Cinna*
oblīvīscere Graiōs (Vergil), *forget the Greeks*

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[1] The genitive with verbs of remembering and forgetting may be due to the close relationship between these verbs and the adjectives **memor**, *mindful of*, and **immemor**, *unmindful of*, which take the genitive. However, in the earliest Latin the genitive is much less frequent than the accusative. There is apparently no essential difference in meaning between the genitive and accusative with these verbs.

b. When the object is a *thing*, **meminī**, **reminīscor**, and **oblīvīscor** take either the genitive or the accusative of a noun and generally only the accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective.

reminīscātur *virtūtis* Helvētiōrum, *let him remember the valor of the Helvetians*
tōtam *causam* oblītus est, *he forgot the whole case*
oblīvīscere *caedis* atque *incendiōrum*, *forget murder and conflagrations*
***multa* meminērunt**, *they remember many things*

359. The verb **recordor**, *recollect*, *recall*, regularly takes the accusative.

recordāminī omnīs cīvīlīs *dissēnsiōnēs*, *recall all the civil wars*

360. The expression **mihi** (**tibi**, etc.) **in mentem venit**, when impersonal, takes the genitive.

venit mihi *Platōnis* in mentem, *the thought of Plato comes to my mind*

361. Verbs of reminding — **admoneō**, **commoneō**, **commonefaciō** — often take, along with the *accusative* of the *person* reminded, the *genitive* of the *thing* called to mind.

tē *amīcitiae* commonefacit, *he reminds you of friendship*

NOTE. But a neuter pronoun or adjective is put in the accusative.

***illud* mē admonēs**, *you remind me of that*

362. Verbs of reminding frequently take **dē** with the ablative.

***dē proeliō* vōs admonuī**, *I have reminded you of the battle*

363. Impersonal verbs of feeling — **miseret**, **paenitet**, **piget**, **pudet**, **taedet** — take, with the *accusative* of the *person* feeling, the *genitive* of *that toward which* the feeling is directed.

***mē* miseret *tuī*,** *I pity you* (lit. *it pities me of you*)
***mē* nōn sōlum piget *stultitiae* meae sed etiam pudet**, *I am not only grieved at my folly but also ashamed of it*
***vītae mē* taedet**, *I am weary of life*

364. With verbs of feeling, an infinitive, a clause, or a neuter pronoun used as subject, often takes the place of the genitive.

> **nōn mē paenitet *vīxisse***, *I do not regret that I have lived*
> **mē *quia tuās litterās nōn accēpī* piget**, *I am sorry that I have not received your letter*
> **nōn tē *haec* pudent**, *do not these things shame you?*

NOTE 1. Observe that in the last example the verb is no longer impersonal. The personal construction is not uncommon with **pudet**, and is found occasionally with **paenitet** and **piget**.

NOTE 2. With **pudet** the genitive may be used of the person before whom one is ashamed.

> **pudet mē hōrum *iūdicum***, *I am ashamed before these judges*

365. Misereor and **miserēscō**, *pity*, take the genitive.

> ***eōrum* miserēmur**, *we pity them*

366. Potior, *have power over, get possession of*, usually takes the ablative (cf. § 469. *a.* N. 1), but occasionally the genitive; as always in the phrase **potīrī rērum**, *to become master of affairs* (in a political or military sense).

THE DATIVE CASE

367. The dative case originally denoted the *direction of motion.* This relationship is generally expressed in English by the prepositions *to* and *for.*

NOTE. *Direction* of motion must be carefully distinguished from the *goal* or *limit* of motion, the original force of the accusative. See § 402.

368. The dative is used with verbs and adjectives, less frequently with nouns and adverbs, and sometimes modifies the sentence as a whole.

369. The constructions of the dative may be divided into two classes, according as the original meaning of the case has been retained or has been changed and obscured by later developments.

- I. Original uses of the dative
  - 1. Dative of the indirect object with transitive verbs (§ 371)
  - 2. Dative of the indirect object with intransitive verbs (§ 376)
  - 3. Dative of the indirect object with verbs compounded with prepositions (§ 382)
- II. Derived and special uses of the dative
  - 1. Dative of reference (§ 385)
    - *a.* Dative of the person judging (§ 387)
    - *b.* Ethical dative (§ 388)
    - *c.* Dative of separation (§ 389)
  - 2. Dative of possession (§ 390)
  - 3. Dative of apparent agent (§ 392)
  - 4. Dative of purpose (§ 395)
  - 5. Dative with adjectives (§ 397)

Indirect Object Defined

370. The *object toward which* an action or feeling is directed is put in the dative. This is called the indirect object.[1]

NOTE. This construction occurs in English ("he gave *me* a book"), but has been to some extent displaced by *to* with an object ("he gave the book to me").

Indirect Object with Transitive Verbs

371. The dative of the indirect object, with the accusative of the direct object, may be used with any active transitive verb whose meaning allows.

Such verbs are especially those meaning *give, say, promise, reply, do,* and the like.

> ***eī*** **fīliam suam in mātrimōnium dat**, *he gives to him his daughter in marriage*
> **hoc *tibi* dīcō**, *I say this to you*
> ***eīs*** **auxilium suum pollicitus est**, *he promised them his assistance*
> **haec *memoriae* mandāvī**, *I committed this to memory*

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[1] In this use the dative has retained unchanged its original idea of *direction of motion*, though in Latin the motion is generally to be understood in a figurative rather than in a literal sense.

372. Verbs which, in the active voice, take the accusative and dative retain the dative when used in the passive.

Thus, **puella *patrī* fābulam nārrat**, *the girl tells the story to her father*, becomes in the passive **fābula *patrī* ā puellā nārrātur**, *the story is told to the father by the girl.* Observe the same dative, **patrī**, in both sentences.

373. Verbs of motion, like **mittō** and **ferō**, which regularly take the accusative with a preposition, sometimes take the dative when *no real motion is involved* or when the idea of *giving* or *delivering something to somebody* is uppermost. Similarly the verb **scrībō**, *write*, varies in construction between the dative and the accusative with a preposition.

suppetiās *mī* audet ferre, *he dares to bring me aid*
iussit *Eucliōnī* haec mittere, *he gave orders to send these things to Euclio*
litterās quās *ad Pompeium* scrīpsī, *the letter which I wrote* (and sent) *to Pompey*
nōn quō habērem quod *tibi* scrīberem, *not that I had anything to write to you*

Note. This use of the dative is found in prose only with nouns denoting persons. With concrete objects the accusative with a preposition is almost invariable.

374. The verbs **dōnō**, *give*; **circumdō**, *surround*; **exuō**, *strip off*; and a few others, admit either of two constructions: (*a*) dative of the person, accusative of the thing; or (*b*) accusative of the person, ablative of the thing.

***mīlitibus corōnās* dōnat**, *he presents wreaths to the soldiers*
***mīlitēs corōnīs* dōnat**, *he presents his soldiers with wreaths*

375. In poetry the dative sometimes retains its original meaning of *direction of motion* in a literal sense.

it clāmor *caelō* (Vergil), *the shout rises heavenward*

Indirect Object with Intransitive Verbs

376. The dative may be used with any intransitive[1] verb whose meaning allows an indirect object.

Among these are especially the following:

auxilior, opitulor, *help*
crēdō, *believe*
diffīdō, *distrust*
displiceō, *displease*
faveō, studeō, *favor*
fīdō, cōnfīdō, *trust*
ignōscō, *pardon*
imperō, *command*
indulgeō, *indulge*
invideō, *envy*
īrāscor, suscēnseō, *be angry*
minitor, *threaten*
noceō, *injure*
parcō, temperō, *spare*
pāreō, cēdō, obtemperō, *obey, yield to, submit to*
placeō, *please*
resistō, *resist*
serviō, *serve*
suādeō, persuādeō, *persuade*

cūr *mihi* invidēs, *why do you envy me?*
***mihi* parcit atque ignōscit,** *he spares and pardons me*
***lēgibus* pāreō,** *I obey the laws*
nōn *omnibus* serviō, *I am not a servant to every man*
prīma aciēs *victīs* resistit, *the first line resists the vanquished*
Orgetorīx persuādet *Casticō*, *Orgetorix persuades Casticus*
decimae *legiōnī* Caesar indulserat praecipuē et cōnfīdēbat maximē, *Cæsar had especially indulged the tenth legion and trusted it most of all*

NOTE 1. In English most of these verbs are transitive and take a direct object, but in Latin the original meaning is intransitive and adapted to an indirect object.

Thus, **invidēre,** *to envy*, is literally *to look askance at*; **servīre,** *to serve*, is *to be a slave to*; **persuādēre,** *to persuade*, is *to make a thing pleasant to*, etc.

NOTE 2. **Fīdō** and **cōnfīdō** (*trust*) take also the ablative.

multum *nātūrā* locī cōnfīdēbant, *they had great confidence in the natural strength of the place*

a. Some verbs apparently of the same meanings are transitive and take the accusative.

Such are **iuvō,** *help*; **laedō,** *injure*; **iubeō,** *order*; **dēlectō,** *please*; **offendō,** *offend.*

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[1] A verb is called *intransitive* if it does not admit of a direct object

377. Phrases take the dative precisely like verbs of similar character. Such are **audiēns esse** or **dictō audiēns esse**, *to be obedient to*; and **fidem habēre**, *to have confidence in.*

> **Caesar *eī* fidem habēbat**, *Cæsar had confidence in him*

378. The dative is used with the impersonals **libet** or **lubet**, *it pleases*, and **licet**, *it is permitted*; and with the verbs **dīcō** and **faciō** compounded with **satis**, **bene**, and **male**.

> **petiērunt ut *sibi* lēgātōs mittere licēret**, *they asked that it be permitted them to send ambassadors*
>
> **pulchrum est benefacere *reī pūblicae***, *it is a glorious thing to be of service to the state*

379. Intransitive verbs that govern the dative are used *impersonally* in the passive and retain the dative.

For example, the active ***mihi* persuādeō**, *I persuade myself*, becomes in the passive ***mihi* persuādētur**, *I am persuaded* (lit. *it is persuaded to me*).

380. Some verbs, ordinarily intransitive and used with the dative, become transitive in certain senses and add an accusative of the direct object to the dative.

These are especially the verbs **crēdō**, *trust*; **imperō**, *levy*; **minor**, *threaten*; **persuādeō**, *persuade*.

> **multī *sē suaque* omnia aliēnissimīs crēdidērunt**, *many intrusted themselves and all their possessions to utter strangers*
>
> **Crētēnsibus *obsidēs* imperāvit**, *he levied hostages on the Cretans*
>
> ***id* eīs persuāsit**, *he persuaded them* (of) *this*
>
> **Ascaniōne pater Rōmānās invidet *arcēs*** (Vergil), *does the father begrudge Ascanius his Roman citadels?* [Poetic or late.]

381. In poetry the dative is sometimes used in expressions which would in prose require a different construction. So especially with verbs of *contending*, following the analogy of the Greek.

> **placitōne etiam pugnābis *amōrī*** (Vergil), *will you struggle even against a love that pleases you?* [In prose: **cum amōre**.]
>
> ***tibi* certat** (Vergil), *he vies with you.* [In prose: **tēcum**.]
>
> ***laterī* abdidit ēnsem** (Vergil), *he buried the sword in his side.* [In prose: **in latus** or **in latere**.]

Indirect Object with Verbs Compounded with Prepositions

382. Many verbs compounded with the prepositions **ad, ante, circum, con-, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub,** and **super** admit, as the result of the composition, the dative of the indirect object. These verbs are of three classes:

1. Intransitive verbs which in their simple form cannot take an indirect object.

equitātuī Dumnorīx *praeerat*, *Dumnorix was in command of the cavalry*
omnibus rēbus amōrem crēdō *antevenīre*, *I believe that love comes before all things*
***dēfuit* officiō**, *he has failed in his duty*

2. Transitive verbs that through composition become intransitive and therefore take the dative instead of the accusative.

omnibus *adrīdet*, *he smiles upon all.* [**Rīdeō**, *laugh at*, *ridicule*, takes the accusative.]
tempestātī *obsequī* artis est, *it is a point of skill to yield to the weather.* [**Sequor**, *follow*, takes the accusative.]

3. Transitive verbs that through composition become capable of governing a dative of the indirect object in addition to an accusative of the direct object.

fīnitimīs bellum *īnferēbant*, *they made war upon their neighbors*
is sibi lēgātiōnem ad cīvitātīs *suscēpit*, *he took upon himself the embassy to the states*
mūnītiōnī Labiēnum *praeficit*, *he puts Labienus in command of the fortification*

a. Many transitive and intransitive verbs compounded with these prepositions do not take the dative because the acquired meaning is not suited to an indirect object.

Thus the following compounds take the accusative:

adeō, *approach*
adgredior, *attack*
circumstō, *surround*
conveniō, *meet*
convocō, *call together*
ineō, *enter*
interficiō, *kill*
obeō, *visit*, *attend to*
offendō, *offend*
oppugnō, *assault*
praecēdō, *excel*
subeō, *undergo*

b. In expressions of *locality* or *motion* the usual construction after these compounds is a noun with a preposition.

hostēs *ad fossam* accessērunt, *the enemy drew near to the ditch* (but **sententiae tuae accēdō**, *I yield to your opinion*)
***in segetem* flamma incidit**, *the fire falls on the standing grain*

383. A few verbal nouns (as, **īnsidiae**, *ambush*; **obtemperātiō**, *obedience*) may take the dative like the corresponding verbs.

īnsidiae *cōnsulī*, *the plot against the consul* (cf. **īnsidior**)
obtemperātiō *lēgibus*, *obedience to the laws* (cf. **obtemperō**)

384. The adjective **obvius** and the adverb **obviam** with a verb take the dative.

***cui* māter sēsē tulit obvia**, *his mother met him*
Vercingetorīx obviam *Caesarī* proficīscitur, *Vercingetorix sets out to meet Cæsar*

Dative of Reference

385. The dative of reference denotes the person for whose benefit or to whose injury the action is performed, or whom it remotely concerns.

In this use the dative does not depend upon a single word, but is loosely connected with the sentence as a whole and is not essential to its grammatical completeness. It is often used where we should expect a possessive genitive or a possessive pronoun, especially with substantives denoting parts of the body.

Bellovacī tōtīus bellī imperium *sibi* postulant, *the Bellovaci demand for themselves the supreme control of the entire war*
sēsē *Caesarī* ad pedēs prōiēcērunt, *they threw themselves at Cæsar's feet*
versātur *mihi* ante oculōs aspectus Cethēgī, *the sight of Cethegus comes before my eyes*
taurum *Neptūnō* mactāvit, *he sacrificed a bull to Neptune*
omnēs in fugā *sibi* praesidium pōnēbant, *all sought safety for themselves in flight*
homō nōn *sibi* sōlī vīvit, *man does not live for himself alone*

laudāvit *mihi* frātrem, *he praised my brother* (out of regard for me; **laudāvit frātrem meum** would not imply any such motive)
quid *tibi* vīs, *what do you mean?* (lit. *what do you wish for yourself?*)
Caesar suīs quoque *rēbus* Germānōs timēre voluit, *Cæsar wished the Germans to fear for their own interests also*

386. The dative of reference is used idiomatically without any verb in certain colloquial questions and exclamations and after interjections.

quō *mihi* fortūnam, *of what use to me is fortune?*
unde *mihi* lapidem, *where can I get a stone?*
ei *mihi*, *ah me!*
vae *victīs*, *woe to the conquered!*

387. The dative of reference is used to denote the person in whose judgment or opinion something is true.

This is often called the *dative of the person judging*.

erit ille *mihi* semper deus, *he will always be a god in my opinion*
oppidum prīmum Thessaliae *venientibus* ab Ēpīrō, *the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus* (lit. *to those coming from Epirus*)
est urbe *ēgressīs* tumulus, *there is, as you come out of the city, a mound* (lit. *to those having come out*)

Note that in *defining direction* the person is expressed indefinitely by a participle without a supporting pronoun (as in the second and third examples).

388. The dative of a personal pronoun is sometimes used to denote the person's interest in the fact stated or merely to call attention. This construction is called the *ethical dative*. It is a variety of the dative of reference.

Tongilium *mihi* ēdūxit, *he took Tongilius with him, I am happy to say*
quid *mihi* Celsus agit, *what is Celsus doing, I should like to know?*
hem *tibi* talentum argentī, *a talent of silver, mark you!*
nōn Beroē *vōbīs* est, *this is not Beroë, I tell you*

NOTE. It is obvious from the examples that the connection of this dative is very loose and its exact force hard to render or define. Many examples of it occur in Shakespearean English: as, "He plucked *me* ope his doublet," "He thrusts *me* himself into the company."

389. Many verbs denoting *separation*, especially compounds of **ab, dē,** and **ex,** may take the dative of the *person from whom* instead of the ablative of separation.

hunc *mihi* terrōrem ēripe, *take this terror from me*
nihil *tibi* dētrāxit senātus, *the senate has taken nothing from you*

NOTE. This construction, sometimes called the dative of separation, is a variety of the dative of reference. It represents the action as *done to* or *for* the person. The poets extend the usage to many verbs not admitting this construction in prose.

a. With names of *things* the ablative with a preposition is the regular construction, but the dative occurs in poetry.

***silicī* scintillam excūdit Achātēs** (Vergil), *Achates struck a spark from the flint*
ēripe tē *morae* (Horace), *shake off delay*

DATIVE OF POSSESSION

390. The dative is used with forms of **sum** to denote the *possessor.*

est *mihi* pater, *I have a father*
***eī* fīlius est,** *he has a son*
***imperātōrī* nōmen est Caesar,** *the general has the name Cæsar*

a. With **nōmen est** the *name* as well as the *person* is often put in the dative.

nōmen *Arctūrō* est *mihi*, *my name is Arcturus*

391. Possession is also expressed by **habeō** with the accusative, with no essential difference in meaning; but the dative with **esse** is more common in expressions of naming.

DATIVE OF APPARENT AGENT

392. The dative is used regularly with the passive periphrastic, and often with the compound tenses of the regular passive, to express the *agent* or *doer.*[1]

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[1] The origin of the dative of apparent agent is not certain.

Caesarī **omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda**, *everything had to be done at the same moment by Cæsar*
haec *vōbīs* prōvincia est dēfendenda, *this province must be defended by you*
mihi **rēs prōvīsa est**, *the matter has been seen to by me*

a. The dative of apparent agent is rare with other parts of the verb.

neque cernitur *ūllī* (Vergil), *nor is he seen by any one*

393. The regular construction denoting agency, the ablative with **ab** (§ 453), is usual with all passive forms except the gerundive, and must sometimes be used even with that to avoid ambiguity.

quibus est *ā vōbīs* cōnsulendum, *for whom you must consult.* [Here two datives, **quibus** and **vōbīs**, would be ambiguous.]

394. The gerundive of intransitive verbs is impersonal, and the dative of agent becomes in English the subject nominative.

omnibus **moriendum est**, *all must die* (lit. *it must be died by all*)
Caesarī **nōn exspectandum est,** *Cæsar must not wait*

DATIVE OF PURPOSE

395. The dative is used, especially with forms of **sum,** to denote the *purpose for which*, often accompanied by the dative of reference denoting the *person or thing concerned*.[1]

Caesar *sibi* eam rem *cūrae* futūram pollicitus est, *Cæsar promised that he would see to that matter* (lit. *that that matter would be for a care to him*)
hoc *Gallīs* magnō erat *impedīmentō*, *this was* (*for*) *a great hindrance to the Gauls*
hī *novissimīs praesidiō* erant, *these were* (*for*) *a guard to the rear*
hoc erit *tibi dolōrī*, *this will cause you grief* (lit. *will be for a grief to you*)
cui bonō, *who will be the gainer?* (lit. *to whom will it be for an advantage?*)

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[1] The dative of purpose is a natural development of the notion of *direction of motion*, the fundamental meaning of the dative case (cf. § 367).

a. The following examples show the dative of purpose unaccompanied by a dative of reference.

locum *castrīs* dēligit, *he selects a site for a camp*
diem *conciliō* cōnstituērunt, *they appointed a day for a council*
***receptuī* canit**, *he gives the signal for retreat*

396. The dative of the gerund or gerundive sometimes denotes purpose. See § 877. *a.*

DATIVE WITH ADJECTIVES

397. The dative is used with adjectives to denote that *to which the given quality is directed*, or that *for which it exists or serves*.[1]

a. The dative is used with adjectives of *fitness*, *nearness*, *likeness*, *service*, *inclination*, and others of similar or opposite meaning.

nihil est tam *nātūrae* aptum, *nothing is so fitted to nature*
Belgae proximī sunt *Germānīs*, *the Belgæ are nearest to the Germans*
impār *Hannibalī* erat, *he was no match for Hannibal*
similis *deō* erat, *he was like a god*
***castrīs* idōneum locum dēlēgit**, *he chose a place suitable for a camp*
tribūnī *nōbīs* sunt amīcī, *the tribunes are friendly to us*
erat benignus *cūnctīs*, *he was friendly to all*

NOTE. In Cæsar the adjectives most common with the dative are **fīnitimus**, **idōneus**, and **proximus**.

398. Other constructions are sometimes found where the dative might be expected.

a. Some adjectives take either the dative, or the accusative with a preposition.

***ad amīcitiam* est idōneus**, *he is fitted for friendship*
cōmis *in uxōrem* est, *he is kind to his wife*
grātior sum *in tē*, *I am more grateful to you*

---

[1] The first use corresponds to the dative of the indirect object; the second to the dative of purpose. Both are plainly developments of the fundamental dative notion of *direction of motion*.

b. With **similis** or **dissimilis** the genitive is more common than the dative in early writers. Classic writers use either the genitive or dative, but with personal pronouns the genitive is regular (cf. § 351. N.).

> ***dominī*** **similis es** (Terence), *you are like your master*
> **pater est** ***meī*** **similis,** *my father is like me*

c. With **aliēnus,** *foreign to*, the genitive or dative may be used, but the ablative, with or without **ā**, is the prevailing construction.

> **aliēnum** ***ā vītā*** **meā,** *foreign to my life*
> **meā** ***exīstimātiōne*** **aliēnum,** *foreign to my thought*

399. A few adverbs of likeness take the dative.

> **vīvere convenienter** ***nātūrae,*** *to live in conformity with nature*

400. Adjectives and adverbs of *likeness* or *unlikeness* are often followed by **atque** (**ac**), **et**, or **-que**, meaning *as*, *than*, or *from*. The pronoun **īdem**, *the same*, regularly takes either this construction or a relative clause.

> **alius nunc ego sum** ***atque*** **ōlim,** *I am different now from* (what I was) *before*
> **vīta est eadem** ***ac*** **fuit,** *life is the same as it was*
> **īdem abeunt** ***quī*** **vēnerant,** *the same men go as had come*

401. In expressions of motion the adjectives **propior**, **proximus**, and the adverbs **propius**, **proximē**, usually take the accusative with or without **ad**.

> **castra mōvit propius** ***Avaricum,*** *he moved the camp nearer to Avaricum*

For the genitive with adjectives see § 357.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE

402. It is probable that the accusative case originally denoted the *goal* or *limit of motion*. To this use the accusative of the direct object, the accusative of extent, and the accusative of the place whither may be readily traced. But it is impossible to derive all the constructions of the accusative from any single function of that case.

403. The original and derived uses of the accusative are:

- Accusative of the direct object
  1. Accusative of the direct object (§ 404)
  2. Accusative of kindred meaning (§ 408)
  3. Two accusatives — direct object and secondary object (§ 412)
  4. Two accusatives — direct object and adjunct accusative (§ 416)
  5. Accusative as subject of an infinitive (§ 419)
- Other uses of the accusative
  1. Accusative of extent and duration (§ 420)
  2. Accusative of respect (§ 427)
  3. Accusative of the place whither (§ 428)
  4. Accusative of exclamation (§ 436)
  5. Idiomatic uses of the accusative (§ 438)
  6. Accusative with prepositions (§ 276)

ACCUSATIVE OF THE DIRECT OBJECT

404. The direct object of a transitive verb is put in the accusative.

Caesar *Gallōs* vīcit, *Cæsar conquered the Gauls*
Rōmānī *Carthāginem* dēlēvērunt, *the Romans destroyed Carthage*
Cicerō multās *ōrātiōnēs* scrīpsit, *Cicero wrote many orations*

NOTE. The direct object may express either the person or thing directly affected by the action of the verb (as in the first two examples) or the result or product of the action (as in the last example). *Transitive* verbs require a direct object to complete their sense. Verbs not admitting a direct object are called *intransitive*.

405. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice becomes its subject in the passive, and is put in the nominative.

ACTIVE: **Caesar *Gallōs* vīcit**, *Cæsar conquered the Gauls*
PASSIVE: ***Gallī* ā Caesare victī sunt**, *the Gauls were conquered by Cæsar*

406. Certain classes of verbs taking a direct object require special notice.

a. Verbs of *feeling*, often intransitive, are sometimes transitive and may be used with an accusative or in the passive.

meum ***cāsum lūctumque*** **doluērunt**, *they grieved at my calamity and sorrow*
Ariovistī ***crūdēlitātem*** **horrent**, *they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus*
ab omnibus ***rīdētur***, *he is laughed at by all*

NOTE. So, too, **dēspērō**, *despair of*; **gemō**, *bemoan*; **queror**, *complain of*; **maereō**, *bewail*; **sitiō**, *thirst for*; etc.

b. Verbs of *motion* (compounds of **ad, circum, in, praeter, sub, trāns**), and a few others, frequently become transitive and take the accusative.

oppidum **adīre**, *to approach the town*
senātum **circumstāre**, *to stand about the senate*
magistrātum **inīre**, *to enter upon an office*
omnia **praeterīre**, *to overlook everything*
perīcula **subīre**, *to undergo perils*
flūmen **trānsīre**, *to cross the river*

c. A few verbs, regularly intransitive in classic prose, are sometimes transitive in poetry and late Latin.

mē **lupus fūgit** (Horace), *a wolf fled from me*
aequor **nāvigāre** (Vergil), *to sail the sea*
maria **aspera iūrō** (Vergil), *I swear by the rough sea*
nec latuēre dolī ***frātrem*** **Iūnōnis** (Vergil), *nor did the wiles of Juno escape her brother*

d. By a Greek idiom, the passive of many verbs, especially of those meaning to *put on*, is used by the poets as middle[1] and takes a direct object, sometimes styled the *medial* object.

ferrum **cingitur** (Vergil), *he girds on his sword*
induitur ***faciem*** **Diānae** (Ovid), *he assumes the appearance of Diana*
nōdō ***sinūs*** **collēcta** (Vergil), *having gathered her dress in a knot*

407. Impersonal verbs, if transitive, take the accusative like other transitive verbs.

vōs **decet**, *it becomes you*
mē **iuvat**, *it pleases me*
mē **pudet**, *I am ashamed* (lit. *it shames me*)
mē **fallit**, *I am mistaken* (lit. *it deceives me*)

[1] The middle voice, well preserved and much used in Greek, represents the subject as acting on itself (that is, *reflexively*): as, **ferrum** ***cingitur***, ***he girds*** *his sword on himself*. The Latin passive had originally a middle meaning.

ACCUSATIVE OF KINDRED MEANING (COGNATE ACCUSATIVE)

408. Many verbs, ordinarily intransitive, may take the accusative of a noun of kindred meaning.

quis tūtiōrem *vītam* vīvit, *who lives a safer life?*
tertiam iam *aetātem* hominum vīvēbat, *he was now living the third generation of men*
***servitūtem* serviunt,** *they are in slavery* (lit. *are serving a service*)
***Olympia* vīcit,** *he won the Olympian victory*
longam *viam* itūrus es, *you are about to go on a long journey*

NOTE. The noun used as the accusative of kindred meaning is frequently derived from the same root as the verb, as in the first and third examples. Often, however, there is no etymological connection, but only likeness in meaning.

409. Verbs of *taste*, *smell*, and the like may take an accusative of kindred meaning to define or limit the action of the verb.

***vīnum* redolet,** *it smells of wine*
***herbam* mella sapiunt,** *the honey tastes of grass*

410. A neuter pronoun or neuter adjective is very common as an accusative of kindred meaning. The English equivalent is often best expressed by supplying a noun.

***id* laetor,** *I rejoice at this*
***hoc* glōrior,** *I make this boast*
***id* eīs persuāsit,** *he persuaded them of this*
***hoc* tē moneō,**[1] *I give you this advice*
multa *alia* peccat, *he commits many other errors*
***acerba* tuēns,** *looking fiercely* (cf. Eng. "to look daggers")
***Bacchānālia* vīvere,** *to live in revelings* (i.e. *to live a Bacchanalian life*)
***dulce* rīdēns,** *smiling sweetly* (i.e. *smiling a sweet smile*)
***aeternum* serviet,** *he will be a slave forever* (i.e. *he will serve an everlasting service*)

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[1] In this case the verb is transitive, and the accusative of kindred meaning is used along with the direct object.

a. Some verbs that take the neuter of a pronoun or adjective as an accusative of kindred meaning would take a different construction of a noun.

id **laetor**, *I rejoice at this*
victōriā **meā laetor**, *I rejoice at my victory*

411. The accusative of kindred meaning (cognate accusative) is frequent in poetry. Writers of classic prose use it sparingly, especially of nouns. Neuter pronouns and neuter adjectives thus used are often scarcely distinguishable from adverbs.

TWO ACCUSATIVES — DIRECT OBJECT AND SECONDARY OBJECT

412. Transitive verbs compounded with **trāns**, rarely with other prepositions, may take (along with the direct object) a secondary object governed by the preposition.

Caesar ***flūmen*** **exercitum trādūcit**, *Cæsar leads his army across the river*
Agēsilāus cōpiās ***Hellēspontum*** **trāiēcit**, *Agesila'us took his troops across the Hellespont*
Pompeius eōs omnia sua ***praesidia*** **circumdūxit**, *Pompey led them round all his garrisons*

a. **Trāns** is sometimes, and other prepositions are usually, repeated.

Caesar ***trāns*** **flūmen exercitum trādūcit**, *Cæsar leads his army across the river*
animum ***in*** **spem veniae indūcere**, *to move the mind to the hope of pardon*

b. The secondary object may be retained with a passive verb.

Belgae ***Rhēnum*** **trāductī sunt**, *the Belgæ were led across the Rhine*

413. Some verbs meaning to *ask, demand, teach,* and **cēlō,** *conceal,* may take two accusatives, one of the person (*direct object*) and the other of the thing (*secondary object*).

mē sententiam **rogāvit**, *he asked me my opinion*
Caesar ***Haeduōs frūmentum*** **flāgitat**, *Cæsar demands grain of the Hædui*

magister ***puerōs elementa*** **docet,** *the teacher teaches the children their A B C's*
nōn ***tē*** **cēlāvī** ***sermōnem,*** *I did not conceal the conversation from you*

NOTE. This construction is found in classical authors with **cēlō, doceō, flāgitō, ōrō, poscō, reposcō, rogō,** and **interrogō.**

414. Some verbs of *asking* and *demanding* take the ablative of the person with a preposition instead of the accusative of the person.

pācem ***ab Rōmānīs*** **petiērunt,** *they sought peace from the Romans*

NOTE. So always **petō** and **quaerō**; and usually **flāgitō, poscō, postulō.**

415. With the passive of **rogō, doceō,** and a few other verbs, the accusative of the *person* becomes the subject and the accusative of the *thing* is retained.

sententiam **rogātus sum,** *I was asked my opinion*
puerī elementa **doctī sunt,** *the children were taught their A B C's*

NOTE. This accusative is sometimes called the retained object.

TWO ACCUSATIVES — DIRECT OBJECT AND ADJUNCT ACCUSATIVE

416. An accusative in the predicate referring to the same person or thing as the direct object, but not in apposition with it, is called an adjunct or predicate accusative.

417. Many verbs of *making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing,* and the like, may take two accusatives, one the direct object and the other an adjunct accusative.

eum cōnsulem **fēcērunt,** *they made him consul.* [Here **eum** is the direct object and **cōnsulem** the adjunct accusative.]
Caesarem imperātōrem **appellāvērunt,** *they called Cæsar general*
Servium rēgem **creāvērunt,** *they elected Servius king*
hominem **prae sē** ***nēminem*** **putāvit,** *he regarded no one as a man in comparison with himself*

NOTE. With verbs of *regarding* other constructions are common instead of the adjunct accusative: as, **eum** ***in numerō hostium*** (or ***prō hoste***) **habeō,** *I regard him as an enemy.*

a. The adjunct accusative may be an adjective.

mē *lēnissimum* praebuī, *I showed myself most merciful*
mē eius reī *certiōrem* fēcit, *he informed me of that matter*

418. In the passive the direct object becomes the subject nominative and the adjunct accusative becomes the predicate nominative (§ 309. *b*).

***Servius rēx* creātus est,** *Servius was chosen king*

Accusative as Subject of an Infinitive

419. The subject of an infinitive is put in the accusative.

intellegō *tē* sapere, *I perceive that you are wise*
dīcit *montem* ab hostibus tenērī, *he says that the mountain is held by the enemy*
***nostrōs* nōn esse īnferiōrēs intellēxit,** *he found that our men were not inferior*

Note 1. The accusative as subject of an infinitive was originally felt as the object of the verb on which the infinitive depends. This construction is especially common after verbs of *saying*, *knowing*, *thinking*, *perceiving*, and the like (§ 839. *a*) in principal clauses of indirect discourse. See § 887. I.

Note 2. The subject of the so-called historical infinitive is in the nominative (§ 844).

Accusative of Extent and Duration

420. *Extent of space* and *duration of time* are expressed by the accusative.

421. The accusative of extent of space answers the question *how far? how long?* or *how wide?*

***mīlia passuum duodecim* prōgressus est,** *he advanced twelve miles*
umbilīcus *septem pedēs* longus, *a projection seven feet long*
fossam *quīndecim pedēs* lātam perdūxit, *he made a ditch fifteen feet wide*
porta aberat *vīgintī passūs*, *the gate was twenty paces away*

Note. For the genitive of measure see § 340.

422. The accusative of duration of time answers the question *how long?*

rēgnum *multōs annōs* obtinuerat, *he had held the sovereignty for many years*
***diēs quīndecim* iter fēcērunt**, *they marched for fifteen days*
haec *magnam partem* aestātis faciēbant, *they continued to do this during a great part of the summer*

a. Age is expressed by the past participle **nātus** (*born*) used with the accusative, sometimes with the ablative.

puer decem *annōs* (*annīs*) nātus mortuus est, *the boy died at the age of ten years.*

423. Duration of time is sometimes expressed by the accusative with **per** or by the ablative without a preposition.

lūdī *per decem diēs* factī sunt, *games were held for ten days*
***eā tōtā nocte* continenter iērunt**, *they marched without a halt during that entire night*
continenter *hōrīs quīnque* pugnātum est, *the battle raged continuously for five hours*

NOTE. The ablative in this use really designates the period rather as *time within which* (§ 492. 2) than as *time how long*.

424. Duration of time may be expressed by the accusative singular of a noun with an ordinal numeral.

rēgnat iam *sextum annum*, *he has reigned going on six years* (lit. *he is reigning now the sixth year*)

425. With **abhinc**, *ago*, either the accusative of duration of time or the ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475) may be used.

abhinc *annōs trēs* or **abhinc *tribus annīs***, *three years ago*

426. The accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective of quantity may denote the *degree* of an action or quality.

***plūrimum* potest**, *he is most powerful*
***multum* sunt in vēnātiōnibus**, *they are much occupied in hunting*
***quid* in bellō possunt**, *how strong are they in war?*

NOTE 1. Other accusatives so used are **aliquid**, **quicquam**, **plūs**, **tantum**, **quantum**. Some regard these as accusatives of kindred meaning (§ 411) or as adverbial.

NOTE 2. For measure of difference expressed by the ablative see § 475.

ACCUSATIVE OF RESPECT

427. The accusative is sometimes used with a verb or adjective to denote *that in respect to which* a statement is made.

This construction, borrowed from Greek, is used chiefly in poetry, and is confined mainly to (*a*) nouns denoting *birth, mind*, or *parts of the body*, and (*b*) neuter plural adjectives, such as **alia**, **cētera**, **cūncta**, **omnia**, etc.

The following are examples from Vergil:

Crēssa *genus*, Pholoē, *a Cretan by* (in respect to) *birth*, *Pholoe*
***animum* arrēctī**, *aroused in* (in respect to) *mind* or *spirit*
***oculōs* suffectī**, *with eyes suffused* (suffused as to eyes)
nūda *genū*, *with her knee bare* (bare as to her knee)
***ōs umerōsque* deō similis**, *in face and shoulders like a god*
***cētera* Graius**, *in other respects a Greek*

NOTE. This construction is sometimes called the synecdochical or Greek accusative.

ACCUSATIVE OF THE PLACE WHITHER

428. The place whither is regularly expressed by the accusative with the preposition **ad**, **in**, or **sub**.

Haeduī lēgātōs *ad Caesarem* mittunt, *the Hædui send ambassadors to Cæsar*
***in* Allobrogum *fīnīs* exercitum dūcit**, *he leads the army into the territory of the Allobroges*
exercitum *sub iugum* mittunt, *they send the army under the yoke*

429. With the name of a *country* **ad** denotes *to the borders*; **in** with the accusative, *into* the country itself.

***ad Italiam* iter fēcit**, *he marched to Italy*
***in Italiam* iter fēcit**, *he marched into Italy*

430. The preposition with the *place whither* is regularly omitted with names of *towns* and *small islands*; **domus**, *home*; and **rūs**, *country*.

ībō *Athēnās*, *I shall go to Athens*
ille sē *Massiliam* cōnferet, *he will betake himself to Marseilles*
***Rōmam* ad senātum vēnī**, *I came to Rome to the senate*
***Dēlum* vēnit**, *he came to Delos*
***domum* rediērunt**, *they returned home*
suās *domōs* abiērunt, *they went away to their homes*
***rūs* ībō**, *I shall go into the country*

NOTE. The expression of the *place whither* by the accusative without a preposition was the original construction and follows from the fundamental notion of that case (§ 402). The prepositions, originally adverbs, were afterwards added to define more exactly the direction of motion, and, by long association, became indispensable except as indicated above. The English *home* in "I am going home" is, like **domum**, an old accusative of the *goal* or *limit of motion.*

431. The preposition **ad** is used with names of towns and small islands to denote *towards, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of.*

***ad Alesiam* proficīscuntur**, *they set out for Alesia*
***ad Genāvam* pervēnit**, *he came to the vicinity of Geneva*

432. The accusatives **urbem** and **oppidum** expressing the *place whither* require the preposition even when the name of the town accompanies them.

***ad urbem* Rōmam vēnit**, *he came to the city of Rome*

433. When **dōmus** means a *house* or *building*, the preposition is used.

***in* Laecae *domum* vēnistī**, *you came to Læca's house*

434. The poets and later writers often omit the preposition when it would be required in classic prose.

Italiam* Lāvīniaque vēnit *lītora (Vergil), *he came to Italy and the Lavinian shores*
dēvēnēre *locōs* laetōs (Vergil), *they reached the happy spots*
***Aegyptum* proficīscitur** (Tacitus), *he sets out for Egypt*

435. The preposition is not used with the supine in **-um** (§ 882. I), which is in reality an accusative of the place whither, nor in the following old phrases:

īnfitiās **īre**, *to resort to denial*
pessum **dare**, *to ruin*
vēnum **dare**, *to sell*
vēnum **īre**, *to be sold*
suppetiās **īre** (**venīre**, **mittere**, etc.), *to go* (*come*, *send*, etc.) *to* (any one's) *aid*

Accusative of Exclamation

436. The accusative is used, especially with interjections, in exclamations.

o fortūnātam ***rem pūblicam***, *O fortunate republic!*
ēn quattuor ***ārās***, *lo, four altars!*
prō deum ***fidem***, *good heavens!*
mē **miserum**, *ah, wretched me!*

437. The interjections **ecce** and **em** (*lo! behold! see!*) often combine with the accusative of **is** or **ille**, giving rise to such forms as **eccum** (**ecce eum**), **eccam** (**ecce eam**), **eccōs** (**ecce eōs**), **eccillum** (**ecce illum**), **ellum** (**em illum**), etc.

Idiomatic Uses of the Accusative

438. The following uses of the accusative, adverbial in character, are of doubtful origin.

bonam partem, *in a great measure*
meam (**tuam**, **suam**, etc.) **partem**, *for my* (*your*, *his*, etc.) *part*
maiōrem (**maximam**) **partem**, *for the greater* (*most*) *part*
nihil, *not at all*
id (**hoc**) **aetātis**, *at that* (*this*) *age*
id (**hoc**) **temporis**, *at that* (*this*) *time*
id (**quod**) **genus**, *of that* (*what*) *sort*
meam (**tuam**, **suam**, etc.) **vicem**, *on my* (*your*, *his*, etc.) *part*
virīle (**muliebre**) **secus**, *of the male* (*female*) *sex*
dextrum, *on the right*
laevum, *on the left*
quod sī, *but if*
quid, *why*

For the accusative with prepositions see § 276.

THE ABLATIVE CASE

439. The Latin ablative includes the functions and in part the forms of three original cases: the true ablative, or *from* case, denoting separation; the instrumental, or *with* (or *by*) case, denoting association, means, or instrument; and the locative, or *in* case, denoting the place in time or space. On this basis the uses of the Latin ablative are divided into three classes as follows:[1]

- I. True ablative — *from* case
  - 1. Ablative of separation (§ 440)
  - 2. Ablative of the place whence (§ 441)
  - 3. Ablative of comparison (§ 446)
  - 4. Ablative of origin (§ 451)
  - 5. Ablative of material (§ 452)
  - 6. Ablative of agent (§ 453)
- II. Instrumental ablative — *with* (or *by*) case
  - 1. Ablative of accompaniment (§ 456)
  - 2. Ablative of attendant circumstance (§ 457)
  - 3. Ablative of accordance (§ 458)
  - 4. Ablative of manner (§ 459)
  - 5. Ablative of cause or reason (§ 462)
  - 6. Ablative of description or quality (§ 466)
  - 7. Ablative of means (§ 468)
    - *a.* Ablative of price or value (§ 470)
    - *b.* Ablative of the way by which (§ 474)
    - *c.* Ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475)
  - 8. Ablative of respect (§ 478)
  - 9. Ablative absolute (§ 480)
- III. Locative ablative — *in* case
  - 1. Ablative of place where (§ 485)
  - 2. Ablative of time (§ 492)

I. TRUE ABLATIVE USES

440. Ablative of Separation. The ablative of separation — sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition — is used in connection with verbs or adjectives denoting *separation, deprivation, freedom from,* and the like.

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[1] The three original cases, despite their radical difference in meaning, had many points of contact, and it is often difficult to distinguish among them. Too great a degree of certainty should, therefore, not be attached to this classification.

a. A preposition (**ā, ab, dē, ē, ex**) is used (1) regularly before nouns denoting *persons*, (2) generally when the separation is *actual* and *literal*.

> **Gallōs *ab Aquītānīs* Garumna flūmen dīvidit,** *the Garonne river separates the Gauls from the Aquitani*
> **oppidum vacuum *ab dēfēnsōribus*,** *a town stripped of defenders*
> **hostem *ā pugnā* prohibēbant,** *they kept the enemy from battle*
> ***ā cultū* prōvinciae longissimē absunt,** *they are farthest away from the civilization of the province*
> **ānulum *dē digitō* dētrāxit,** *he drew the ring from his finger*
> **Messāna *ab* hīs *rēbus* vacua atque nūda est,** *Messana is empty and bare of these things*

b. The preposition is generally not present when the separation is figurative, especially if the verb or adjective itself contains a separative preposition.

> **Helvētiī eā *spē* dēiectī,** *the Helvetii, deprived of that hope*
> **Ariovistus *pertināciā* dēsistit,** *Ariovistus desists from his obstinacy*
> **levāmur *superstitiōne*, līberāmur mortis *metū*,** *we are relieved from superstition, we are freed from fear of death*
> **senectūs *voluptātibus* caret,** *old age lacks enjoyments*
> ***cōnātū* dēsistunt,** *they desist from the attempt*
> ***auxiliō* eget,** *he needs help*
> **immūnis *mīlitiā*,** *free of military service*

NOTE. There are numerous exceptions to these rules, especially in poetry, and many verbs take or omit the preposition with no apparent distinction. Compare the following examples:

> ***ex cīvitāte* excessērunt,** *they departed from the state*
> ***fīnibus* suīs excesserant,** *they had left their own territory*
> **hostīs *ab oppidīs* prohibent,** *they keep the enemy from the towns*
> **suīs *fīnibus* eōs prohibent,** *they keep them from their own territory*

441. Ablative of the Place Whence. The ablative with **ab, dē,** or **ex** is used to denote the place *whence*.

> ***ab urbe* proficīscitur,** *he sets out from the city*
> ***dē fīnibus* suīs exeunt,** *they go forth from their territory*
> **legiōnēs *ex hībernīs* ēdūcit,** *he leads the legions out from their winter quarters*
> ***ex Britanniā* obsidēs mīsērunt,** *they sent hostages from Britain*
> **negōtiātor *ex Āfricā* venit,** *a merchant is coming from Africa*

442. With names of *towns* and *small islands* and with **domus**, *home*, and **rūs**, *country*, the place whence, after verbs of motion, is denoted by the ablative without a preposition.

> ***Rōmā*** **ex urbe nōbilī profectus est**, *he set out from Rome, a famous city*
> ***Dēlō*** **nāvigāvit**, *he sailed from Delos* (a small island)
> ***domō*** **abit**, *he leaves* (goes from) *home*
> ***rūre*** **revertit**, *he returned from the country*

NOTE. When **domus** means a *building*, the preposition is used.

a. With names of towns and small islands **ab** is used to denote *from the vicinity of.*

> **ā** ***Mutinā*** **discessit**, *he withdrew from the vicinity of Modena*

443. The words **urbs**, **oppidum**, and **īnsula**, either standing alone or in apposition with a geographical name, require a preposition to express the *place whence.*

> **ab** (**ex**) **urbe**, *from the city*
> ***ab*** (**ex**) ***urbe*** **Rōmā**, *from the city of Rome*

444. In expressing the *place whence* poets and later writers often omit the preposition when it would be required in classical prose.

> **Trōas arcēbat longē** ***Latiō*** (Vergil), *she kept the Trojans far from Latium*
> ***Scythiā*** **profectī** (Q. Curtius), *setting out from Scythia*

445. By a difference of idiom the *place where* is sometimes regarded in Latin as the *direction from which*, and is expressed by the ablative with **ab** (rarely **ex**).

> **Orgetorīx** ***ex vinculīs*** **causam dīcit**, *Orgetorix pleads his cause in chains*

a. So in the following expressions:

> **ā fronte**, *in front*
> **ā tergō**, *in the rear*
> **ā dextrā**, *on the right*
> **ā sinistrā**, *on the left*
> **ab hāc parte**, *on this side*
> **ā latere**, *on the side*
> **ab novissimō agmine**, *on the rear*

446. Ablative of Comparison. *Than* after the comparative degree may be expressed by the ablative of comparison or by the particle **quam**. With **quam** the two things compared are in the same case.

> **Catō est *Cicerōne* ēloquentior**, *Cato is more eloquent than Cicero*
> **Ubiī sunt *cēterīs* hūmāniōrēs**, *the Ubii are more civilized than the rest*
> **Caesar mīlitum vītam suā *salūte* cāriōrem habet**, *Cæsar holds the lives of his soldiers dearer than his own safety*
> ***Caesar* minor est quam *Cicerō***, *Cæsar is younger than Cicero*

NOTE. The ablative of comparison is a form of the ablative of separation, the first example above meaning literally, *reckoning from Cicero as a standard, Cato is more eloquent.*

a. The construction with **quam** is required where the first of the things compared is not in the nominative or accusative.

> **est misericordiā dignior *quam contumēliā***, *he is more worthy of pity than of disgrace.* [Here the ablative is due to **dignus** (§ 479).]

b. The comparative adverbs **citius** and **celerius** are followed by the ablative of comparison.

> ***dictō* citius**, *sooner than you could tell it* (lit. *said*)
> ***opīniōne* celerius**, *sooner than was expected* (lit. *expectation*)

447. The poets sometimes use the ablative of comparison where the prose construction requires **quam** (§ 446. *a*).

> **pāne egeō iam mellītīs potiōre *placentīs*** (Horace), *I now want bread rather than honey cakes.* [Here the ablative **pāne** depends on **egeō** (§ 469. *d*).]

448. The ablative of comparison is regular in negative sentences.

> **nihil est foedius *servitūte***, *nothing is viler than slavery*

449. *Than* followed by a relative pronoun with a definite antecedent is never expressed by **quam**, but by the ablative of the relative.

> **rēx erat Aenēās nōbīs, *quō* iūstior alter nōn fuit**, *Æneas was our king, than whom no other was more righteous*

450. After the comparatives **plūs**, **minus**, **amplius**, and **longius**, when used without **quam**, the noun usually takes the case required by the context, without reference to the comparative.

hostēs nōn amplius octingentōs *equitēs* habēbant, *the enemy had no more than eight hundred horsemen*
plūs *septingentī* captī sunt, *more than seven hundred were captured*

451. Ablative of Origin. The ablative, generally without a preposition, is used with **nāscor**, *be born*, and with the participles **nātus**, **ortus**, and a few others of similar meaning, to denote *parentage* or *origin*.

amplissimō *genere* nātus, *born of a very noble family*
summō in Arvernīs ortus *locō*, *sprung from the highest station among the Arverni*
Maecēnās ēdite *rēgibus*, *O Mæcenas, descendant of kings*
quō *sanguine* crētus, *born of what blood?*

a. A preposition (generally **ex**) is regularly used with pronouns and sometimes with nouns.

***ex mē* hic nātus nōn est sed *ex frātre* meō**, *this is not my son, but my brother's* (not born from me, etc.)
cum *ex* utrāque *uxōre* fīlius nātus esset, *when a son had been born of each wife*

452. Ablative of Material. The ablative, usually with **ex** (in poetry often with **dē**), is used to denote the material of which anything consists or is made.

nāvēs factae sunt *ex rōbore*, *the ships were made of oak*
scūta *ex cortice* facta, *shields made of bark*
valvae *ex aurō* atque *ebore*, *doors of gold and ivory*
templum *dē marmore* pōnam, *I'll build a temple of marble*

a. In poetry the preposition is often omitted.

***scopulīs* pendentibus antrum** (Vergil), *a cave of overhanging rocks*
***aere* cavō clipeus** (Vergil), *a shield of hollow bronze*

b. The ablative of material without a preposition is used with **facere**, **fierī**, and similar words, in the sense of *do with*, *become of*.

> **quid hōc *homine* faciātis**, *what are you going to do with this fellow?*
> **quid *Tulliolā* meā fīet**, *what will become of my dear Tullia?*

Note. The ablative of material is a development of the ablative of origin. For the genitive of material see § 348.

453. Ablative of Agent. The ablative with **ā** or **ab** is used with a passive verb to denote the personal agent.

> ***ā senātū* amīcus appellātus erat**, *he had been called friend by the senate*
> **exercitus *ab Helvētiīs* pulsus est**, *the army was defeated by the Helvetii*
> **laudātur *ab hīs*, culpātur *ab illīs***, *he is praised by these, blamed by those*
> ***ab* nōn nūllīs *Gallīs* sollicitābantur**, *they were incited by some* (of the) *Gauls*

Note 1. The ablative of agent is a development of the ablative of origin. The preposition **ā** meant *from* to the Roman mind, not *by*, as it is translated in English.

Note 2. The ablative of agent (which requires **ā** or **ab**) must be carefully distinguished from the ablative of means, which has no preposition (§ 468). Thus, **occīsus *gladiō***, *slain by a sword*; but **occīsus *ab hoste***, *slain by an enemy.*

454. Things personified and sometimes names of animals are found in the construction of the agent.

> **vitia *ā virtūtibus* superantur**, *vices are overcome by virtues*

455. If the person acting is regarded as the *means* rather than as the agent, the accusative with **per** is generally used.

> ***per explōrātōrēs* Caesar certior factus est**, *Cæsar was informed by* (means of) *scouts*

Note. When the action is stressed rather than the persons acting, the ablative is used without **ā** or **ab**.

> **cēna ministrātur tribus *puerīs***, *dinner is served by three slaves*

II. Instrumental Ablative Uses

456. Ablative of Accompaniment. The ablative with **cum** is used to denote accompaniment.

Caesar *cum legiōnibus* tribus profectus est, *Cæsar set out with three legions*

Helvētiī *cum Germānīs* contendunt, *the Helvetii fight with the Germans*

Note. The ablative of accompaniment may be used with words of contention and the like. See the second example above.

a. In some military expressions **cum** may be omitted, especially when the ablative is modified by any adjective not a numeral.

***omnibus cōpiīs* subsequēbātur,** *he followed close with all his forces*

457. Ablative of Attendant Circumstance. The ablative, sometimes with **cum** but more usually without, is used to denote an attendant circumstance or situation.

exercitum duārum cohortium *damnō* dēdūcit, *he leads back his army with the loss of two cohorts*

ex oppidō *silentiō* ēgressī sunt, *they went forth from the town in silence*

hīs *ōminibus* proficīscere ad impium bellum, *attended by these omens go forth to your impious war*

nēmō fūnera *flētū* faxit, *let no one perform my funeral rites with tears*

Liscus intellegit quantō *cum perīculō* id fēcerit, *Liscus understands with how much danger he has done this*

458. Ablative of Accordance. That in *accordance with which* something is done is expressed by the ablative, usually without a preposition, sometimes with **ex** or **dē**.

***mōribus* suīs Orgetorīgem ex vinculīs causam dīcere coēgērunt,** *in accordance with their customs they compelled Orgetorix to plead his cause in chains*

***cōnsuētūdine* suā Caesar sex legiōnēs expedītās dūcēbat,** *according to his custom Cæsar was leading six legions in fighting trim*

tuō *cōnsiliō* faciam, *I will act in accordance with your plan*

haec *ex* senātūs *cōnsultō* ācta sunt, *this was done in accordance with the decree of the senate*

459. Ablative of Manner. The manner of an action is denoted by the ablative with **cum.**

magnō ***cum strepitū*** **ac** ***tumultū*** **castrīs ēgressī sunt,** *with great uproar and confusion they went forth from the camp*
pars nūntiōrum ***cum cruciātū*** **necābātur,** *part of the messengers were killed with torture*

NOTE. The ablative of manner, the ablative of attendant circumstance, and the ablative of accordance are so closely related that they cannot be sharply distinguished.

460. With the ablative of manner the preposition **cum** may be omitted when the noun is modified by an adjective.

flūmen ***incrēdibilī lēnitāte*** **fluit,** *the river flows with incredible slowness*
nūdō corpore **pugnant,** *they fight with body exposed*

461. The preposition **cum** is not used with such words of manner as **modō, pactō, ratiōne, rītū, vī, viā,** nor with certain nouns that have become virtually adverbs, as, **iūre, iniūriā, iussū, iniussū, meritō, sponte, pāce tuā,** etc.

pecudum ***rītū,*** *in the manner of beasts*
iūre **an** ***iniūriā,*** *rightly or wrongly*
pāce tuā **dīxerim,** *I should like to say, with your permission*

NOTE. This usage has been much extended in poetry.

īnsequitur ***cumulō*** **aquae mōns** (Vergil), *a mountain of water follows in a mass*

462. Ablative of Cause or Reason. Cause or reason is denoted by the ablative, sometimes without a preposition, sometimes with **ab, dē,** or **ex.**

magnō ***dolōre*** **adficiēbantur,** *they were affected with great sorrow*
nēmō maeret suō ***incommodō,*** *no one mourns over his own misfortune*
Dumnorīx ***grātiā*** **plūrimum poterat,** *Dumnorix had great power because of his influence*
rēgnī ***cupiditāte*** **adductus coniūrātiōnem fēcit,** *moved by his desire for royal power, he made a conspiracy*
suā ***victōriā*** **īnsolenter glōriābantur,** *they boasted insolently of their victory*

mare *ā sōle* lūcet, *the sea gleams in the sun* (from the sun)
quā *dē causā*, *for this reason*
***ex vulnere* aeger**, *disabled by a wound* (from a wound)

Note. The causal uses of the ablative, especially those without a preposition, originate largely in its instrumental use; but where **ab**, **dē**, or **ex** is employed, the construction seems to go back to the true ablative (§ 439).

463. The ablatives **causā** and **grātiā** (*because, for the sake*) are used with a genitive preceding (§ 331. n.) or with a pronominal adjective in agreement.

***amīcitiae* causā**, *for the sake of friendship*
***eā* causā**, *on account of this*
***meā* grātiā**, *for my sake*

464. Cause is often expressed by **ob** or **propter** with the accusative.

ob* eam *rem, *for that reason*
quam *ob rem*, *on which account*
pecora *propter bellum* remōverant, *they had removed their cattle because of the war*

465. A *preventing* cause is expressed by **prae** with the ablative.

sōlem *prae* iaculōrum *multitūdine* nōn vidēbitis, *you will not see the sun for the number of darts*

466. Ablative of Description or Quality. The ablative with a modifying adjective is used to *describe* a substantive.

mulier *eximiā pulchritūdine*, *a woman of rare beauty*
vir *summō ingeniō*, *a man of the greatest genius*
mōns *magnā altitūdine*, *a mountain of great height*
litterae *hōc exemplō*, *a letter of this tenor*

Note. It is impossible to differentiate sharply between the genitive and the ablative of description. For a broad distinction see § 338. n.

467. The ablative of description is frequently in the predicate.

***animō meliōre* sunt gladiātōrēs**, *the gladiators are of a better mind*
Germānī *ingentī magnitūdine* corporum sunt, *the Germans are of great size of body*
capillō* sunt *prōmissō, *they have long hair*
***magnō timōre* sum**, *I am greatly terrified*

468. Ablative of Means. The ablative is used without a preposition to denote the *means* by which something is done.

ūna pars *flūmine* continētur, *one part is bounded by the river*
hīs *rēbus* adductī, *induced by these things*
eum *manū* suā occīdit, *he killed him with his own hand*

Note. *Means*, *cause*, *manner*, and *accompaniment* are all outgrowths of the same fundamental notion, and are so closely related that they are often difficult to discriminate. Indeed, the Romans themselves can hardly have thought of any sharp distinction.

469. The ablative of means includes the following special uses.

a. The deponents **ūtor**, **fruor**, **fungor**, **potior**, **vēscor**, and several of their compounds govern the ablative.

ūtar vestrā *benignitāte*, *I will avail myself of your kindness* (lit. *I will serve myself by your kindness*)
Caesar īsdem *ducibus* ūsus est, *Cæsar employed the same guides*
lūx *quā* fruimur, *the light which we enjoy* (lit. *the light by which we enjoy ourselves*)
mūneribus corporis fungī, *to perform the functions of the body* (lit. *to busy ourselves with the functions of the body*)
impedīmentīs castrīsque nostrī potītī sunt, *our soldiers took possession of the baggage and camp* (lit. *our soldiers made themselves masters by means of the baggage and camp*)
lacte et *carne* vēscēbantur, *they fed on milk and meat* (lit. *they fed themselves by means of milk and meat*)

Note 1. **Potior** sometimes takes the genitive.

tōtīus *Galliae* potiuntur, *they take possession of the whole of Gaul*

Note 2. In early Latin these verbs are sometimes transitive and take the accusative; and in classic Latin they retain the personal use of the gerundive.

fūnctus est *officium* (Terence), *he performed the part*
modus sit *fruendae voluptātis*, *let there be a limit to the enjoyment of pleasure*

b. **Opus est**, and less commonly **ūsus est**, *there is need*, take the ablative.[1]

> ***magistrātibus* opus est**, *there is need of magistrates*
> **opus *factō* est**, *there is need of action*
> **nunc *vīribus* ūsus est**, *now there is need of strength*

NOTE 1. **Opus** is often in the predicate, with the *thing needed* in the nominative as subject. This is the regular construction when the *thing needed* is a neuter pronoun or adjective.

> **dux nōbīs et auctor *opus* est**, *we need a chief and adviser* (lit. *a chief and adviser is necessary for us*)
> **sī quid mihi *opus* est**, *if I need anything* (lit. *if anything is needful to me*)
> **multa nōbīs *opus* sunt**, *we need many things* (lit. *many things are needful to us*)

NOTE 2. **Opus est** is sometimes used with the ablative of a past participle.

> ***properātō* opus erat**, *there was need of haste*

c. **Contentus**, *satisfied*, **frētus**, *relying on* (lit. *supported*), and **innīxus**, *leaning on*, take the ablative.

> **contentus *sorte***, *satisfied with his lot*
> ***virtūte* frētus**, *relying on his valor*

d. Verbs and adjectives denoting fullness or abundance may be used with the ablative of means.

> ***aggere* fossās explent**, *they fill the ditches with earth*
> **Forum Appī differtum *nautīs***, *Forum Appii, crowded with boatmen*
> **vīta plēna *voluptātibus***, *a life full of delights*

NOTE 1. For the genitive with similar expressions see § 350.

NOTE 2. For means denoted by **per** with the accusative of personal nouns see § 455.

470. Ablative of Price or Value. With expressions of *buying* and *selling* definite price or value is expressed by the ablative.

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[1] The noun **ūsus** follows the analogy of the verb **ūtor**; and **opus**, originally a genitive (cf. **hoc opus est**, *this is of service*), takes the ablative by an extension of the construction with **ūsus**.

agrum vēndidit sēstertium sex *mīlibus*, *he sold the land for six thousand sesterces*
istuc verbum vīle est xx *minīs*, *that word is cheap at twenty minæ*
trīgintā *minīs* ēmī, *I bought it for thirty minæ*

Note. The ablative of price is a development of the ablative of means.

471. Indefinite price or value, when expressed by an adjective, is regularly denoted by the genitive (§ 341); but when expressed by a noun, is usually denoted by the ablative.

***quantī* eam ēmit? *Vīlī* (pretiō),** *how much did he buy her for? Cheap* (lit. *at a low price*)
vēnībunt praesentī *pecūniā*, *they will be sold for cash*
quibus hīc *pretiīs* porcī vēneunt, *at what price are pigs sold here?*
Dumnorīx vectīgālia parvō *pretiō* redēmpta habēbat, *Dumnorix had bought the taxes at a small price*

472. With the verb **mūtō**, *exchange*, and some of its compounds, either the *thing taken* or the *thing given* in exchange may be in the ablative of price.

religiōnem *pecūniā* commūtat, *he barters his conscience for money*
exsilium patriā *sēde* mūtāvit, *he took exile in exchange for his native land*

473. With verbs of *condemning*, the penalty (when it is a fine of definite amount) is denoted by the ablative of price.

Frusinātēs tertiā *parte* agrī damnātī sunt, *the Frusinates were fined a third part of their land*

For the genitive of the charge see § 336.

474. Ablative of the Way by Which. The *way by which*, after verbs of motion, is expressed by the ablative without a preposition.

Aurēliā *viā* profectus est, *he set out by the Aurelian road*
***viā* breviōre equitēs praemīsī,** *I sent forward the cavalry by a shorter road*
frūmentum quod *flūmine* nāvibus subvexerat, *the grain which he had brought up the river by ships*
prōvehimur *pelagō*, *we sail forth over the sea*

Note. The ablative of the way by which is a development of the ablative of means.

475. Ablative of the Measure of Difference. With words expressing or implying comparison the ablative is used to denote the measure of difference.

> **alterum iter est *multō* facilius et expedītius**, *the other route is much easier and quicker*
> **quīnque *mīlibus* passuum distat**, *it is five miles distant* (lit. *distant by five miles*)
> **nec longō distant *cursū***, *nor are they far away* (lit. *distant by a long course*)

NOTE. The ablative of the measure of difference is a development of the ablative of means.

476. Measure of difference is expressed by the correlative ablatives **quō . . . eō (hōc)** and **quantō . . . tantō** with comparatives, as in English by *the . . . the.*

> ***quō* minus cupiditātis, *eō* plūs auctōritātis**, *the less avarice the more authority* (lit. *by what the less of avarice, by that the more of authority*)
> ***quantō* erat gravior oppugnātiō, *tantō* crēbriōrēs litterae mittēbantur**, *the worse the siege was, the more frequent letters were sent*

477. The ablative of the measure of difference is often used with the adverbs **ante** (*before*), **post** (*after*), and **abhinc** (*ago*), to denote *time before* or *after.*

> **tribus ante *annīs***, *three years before* (lit. *before by three years*)
> **tribus post *annīs***, *three years after* (lit. *after by three years*)
> **abhinc tribus *annīs***, *three years ago* (lit. *ago by three years*)

NOTE. As prepositions, **ante** and **post** take the accusative (§ 276). **Abhinc** is generally followed by the accusative of duration (§ 425).

478. Ablative of Respect. The ablative is used to denote *in what respect* something is true.

> ***virtūte* praecēdunt**, *they excel in valor*
> **īnfirmiōrēs *animō* sunt**, *they are weaker in courage*
> **hī omnēs *linguā, īnstitūtīs, lēgibus* inter sē differunt**, *all these differ from each other in language, customs, and laws*

claudus alterō *pede*, *lame in one foot*
maior *nātū*, *older* (lit. *greater in respect to birth*)
minor *nātū*, *younger* (lit. *less in respect to birth*)

NOTE. For the supine in **-ū** in this construction see § 882. II.

479. The adjectives **dignus** and **indignus** usually take the ablative of respect. The genitive occurs, especially in early Latin.

hoc dignum *memoriā* vidētur, *this seems worth mention*
vir *patre, avō, maiōribus* suīs dignissimus, *a man most worthy of his father, grandfather, and ancestors*
dignus *salūtis*, *deserving of safety*

NOTE. So the verb **dignor** in poetry.

haud equidem tālī mē dignor *honōre* (Vergil), *I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor*

480. Ablative Absolute. The ablative of a noun or pronoun with a participle in agreement may be used *absolutely*, that is, as grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. The ablative absolute defines the time or circumstances of the action.

nōndum *hieme cōnfectā* in fīnīs Nerviōrum contendit, *the winter not yet being over, he hastened into the territory of the Nervii*

NOTE. The ablative absolute is of instrumental origin; but the locative and true ablative may have contributed to its development.

481. As the verb **sum** has no present participle, we often find two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, in the ablative absolute with no participle expressed.

M. Messālā M. Pīsōne cōnsulibus, *Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso being consuls*
exiguā *parte* aestātis *reliquā*, *a small part of the summer remaining*

482. A noun or pronoun in the ablative absolute regularly denotes a person or thing not elsewhere mentioned in the same clause.

Compare the sentences:

The Gauls having been conquered by Cæsar, the army returned home, **Gallīs ā Caesare *victīs* exercitus domum rediit**

The Gauls, having been conquered by Cæsar, returned home, **Gallī ā Caesare *victī* domum rediērunt**

The ablative absolute is used in the first example, but is not admissible in the second.

483. A participle or an adjective is sometimes used in the ablative absolute without a substantive.

> ***lībātō* summō tenus attigit ōre** (Vergil), *after pouring the libation she touched* (the goblet) *with her lips*
>
> ***missīs* quī iter mōnstrārent**, (men) *having been sent to show the way*

484. While grammatically independent, the ablative absolute has a logical connection with the rest of the sentence and may express a great variety of relations. This connection is often best expressed in translation by a subordinate clause, and should not always be rendered by the English nominative absolute. Thus, the ablative absolute may replace —

a. A temporal clause.

> **Caesar *acceptīs litterīs* nūntium mittit**, *after Cæsar receives the letter he sends a messenger*

b. A causal clause.

> **maiōrēs nostrī saepe *mercātōribus* nostrīs iniūriōsius *trāctātīs* bella gessērunt**, *our ancestors often waged wars because our traders had been somewhat unjustly treated*

c. A concessive clause.

> **oppidum *paucīs dēfendentibus* expugnāre nōn potuit**, *though only a few defended the town, he could not take it*

d. A conditional clause.

> **dēditiōnis nūlla est condiciō nisi *armīs trāditīs***, *there are no terms of surrender if the arms are not handed over*

e. A clause denoting attendant circumstance.

> **ea omnia *īnscientibus Haeduīs* fēcit**, *he did all these things while the Hædui were in ignorance*

III. Locative Ablative Uses

485. Ablative of the Place Where. The *place where* is regularly denoted by the ablative with the preposition **in.**

***in* hāc *urbe* vītam dēgit**, *he passed his life in this city*
***in Galliā* remānsērunt**, *they remained in Gaul*
***in* Germānōrum *fīnibus* bellum gerunt**, *they wage war in the territory of the Germans*

a. But the preposition **in** is omitted before names of towns and small islands and before **locō, locīs, parte, partibus, dextrā, sinistrā, laevā, terrā, marī**, and nouns modified by **tōtus.**

Carthāgine, *at Carthage*
Athēnīs (§ 80. *c*), *at Athens*
Delphīs (§ 88. *a*), *at Delphi*
Curibus (§ 110), *at Cures*
terrā marīque, *on land and sea*
tōtā Siciliā, *in all Sicily*

Note. Many idiomatic expressions omit **in**: as, **perīculīs**, *in dangers*; **mentibus**, *in minds*; and it is freely omitted in poetry: as, **lītore curvō** (Vergil), *on the winding shore.*

486. The locative case, denoting the *place where*, not distinguished in the plural from the ablative, has a form like the genitive with names of towns and small islands in the singular of the first or second declension.

Rōmae, *at Rome*
Avaricī, *at Avaricum*
Corinthī, *at Corinth*
Cyprī, *at Cyprus*

487. Names of towns of the third declension are usually in the ablative to denote the *place where*, but a few locative forms in **-ī** are found.

Carthāginī, *at Carthage*
Tīburī, *at Tibur*

488. The following special nouns have locative forms like names of towns:

animī, *in mind*
bellī, *in war*
domī, *at home*
herī, *yesterday*
humī, *on the ground*
mīlitiae, *in military service*
rūrī (also abl. **rūre**), *in the country*
vesperī, *in the evening*

489. The locative **domī** may be modified only by a possessive adjective or by a noun in the genitive; when it would be otherwise modified, the ablative with **in** is used instead.

domī **meae,** *at my house*
Caesaris ***domī,*** *at Cæsar's house*
in **Mārcī splendidā** ***domō,*** *at the fine home of Marcus*

490. Verbs of *placing*, though implying motion, take the ablative of place where. Such are **pōnō, locō, conlocō, statuō, cōnstituō,** etc.

Platō ratiōnem ***in capite*** **posuit, īram** ***in pectore*** **locāvit,** *Plato placed reason in the head* (and) *located anger in the heart*

491. Summary of Constructions of Place. 1. Names of places *not towns* are generally put —

a. In the accusative with **ad** or **in** to denote the place to which.

exercitum ***in Italiam*** **dūxit,** *he led an army into Italy*

b. In the ablative with **ab, dē,** or **ex** to denote the place from which.

ab urbe **proficīscitur,** *he sets out from the city*

c. In the locative ablative with **in** to denote the place at or in which.

Hannibal ***in Italiā*** **fuit,** *Hannibal was in Italy*

2. Names of *towns* and words which follow their analogy are put —

a. In the accusative to denote the place to which.

lēgātī ***Athēnās*** **missī sunt,** *ambassadors were sent to Athens*

b. In the ablative to denote the place from which.

Dēmarātus fūgit ***Corinthō,*** *Demaratus fled from Corinth*

c. In the locative or ablative to denote the place at or in which.

Rōmae **et** ***domī*** **tuae vīvere,** *to live at Rome and in your home*
Athēnīs **eram,** *I was at Athens*

492. Ablative of Time. Time *when* or *within which* is expressed by the ablative, regularly without a preposition.

1. Time *when*:

secundā *vigiliā* castrīs ēgressī sunt, *in the second watch they went forth from the camp*

Dīviciācus eō *tempore* prīncipātum obtinēbat, *Diviciacus at that time held the highest place*

Caesar septimō *diē* pervēnit, *Cæsar arrived on the seventh day*

2. Time *within which*:

***diēbus* vīgintī quīnque aggerem exstrūxērunt**, *within twenty-five days they finished building a mound*

hōc tōtō *proeliō* āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit, *throughout this whole battle no one could see an enemy in retreat*

paucīs *annīs* omnēs ex Galliae fīnibus pellentur, *within a few years all will be driven from the territory of Gaul*

NOTE. *Time within which* often approaches closely to the idea of *duration of time* (cf. § 423. N.), as in the second example.

493. The preposition **in** is often used with the ablative of time, especially when the ablative has no modifier.

in pueritiā, *in boyhood*	**in adulēscentiā**, *in youth*
in bellō, *in war*	**bis *in annō***, *twice a year*

494. Many expressions have in Latin the construction of *time when*, where in English the idea is rather that of *place where*.

secundō Pūnicō bellō, *in the second Punic war*
lūdīs Rōmānīs, *at the Roman games*
pugnā Cannēnsī, *in the battle of Cannæ*

495. In many idiomatic expressions of time prepositions are used with the accusative or ablative.

cum prīmā lūce, *at dawn*
dē tertiā vigiliā, *about the third watch*
sub occāsum sōlis, *toward sunset*
sub vesperum, *toward evening*
convēnērunt ad diem, *they assembled on the* (appointed) *day*
sub idem tempus, *about the same time*
sub noctem, *at nightfall*
in tertium annum, *for the third year*

For the expression of dates see § 1010.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES

CLASSIFICATION

496. Adjectives are classified as (*a*) *attributive*, (*b*) *appositive*, and (*c*) *predicate*.

a. An Attributive Adjective[1] is closely attached to its noun and is translated immediately before it.

vir *fortis*, *a brave man* **stellae *lūcidae*,** *bright stars*

b. An Appositive Adjective *explains* its noun like an appositive substantive, and is translated immediately after it.

Laelius *sapiēns* et *bonus*, *Lælius, the wise and good*
Orgetorīx *nōbilissimus* et *dītissimus* Helvētiōrum, *Orgetorix, the noblest and richest of the Helvetii*

c. A Predicate Adjective completes the meaning of the predicate, but describes or limits the subject.

vir erat *fortis*, *the man was brave*
sit Scīpiō *clārus*, *let Scipio be illustrious*

Note. The verb that connects a noun with its predicate adjective is sometimes not expressed.

locum *idōneum* putāvit, *he thought the place* (to be) *suitable.* [Here the verb **esse,** *to be*, is understood.]

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

497. General Rule. Adjectives, pronominal adjectives, and participles agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case.

Agreement with a Single Noun

498. An adjective limiting a single noun agrees with it in gender, number, and case.

***fortissimī* sunt Belgae,** *the Belgæ are the bravest*
***ūna* pars,** *one part*
iter *angustum* et *difficile*, *a way narrow and difficult*

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[1] The attributive adjective is sometimes called the adherent adjective.

499. Two or more similar adjectives in the singular may limit a plural noun.

> ***prīma*** **et** ***vīcēsima*** **legiōnēs**, *the first and twentieth legions*

500. An adjective limiting a clause or an infinitive is neuter singular.

> ***certum*** **est līberōs amārī**, *it is certain that children are loved*

501. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes, especially in poetry, an adjective modifying a collective noun agrees, not with its *grammatical* gender and number, but with the gender and number *conveyed by its sense.*

> **pars certāre** ***parātī***, *a part* (some) *prepared to contend*
> **multitūdō** ***convictī*** **sunt**, *a multitude were convicted*

Agreement with Two or More Nouns

502. One adjective limiting two or more nouns agrees with them in case. Its number and gender are determined by the following rules:

1. Agreement in number.

a. A predicate adjective with two or more nouns is regularly plural.

> **Caesar et Cicerō erant** ***clārī***, *Cæsar and Cicero were famous*
> **Sicilia Sardiniaque sunt** ***āmissae***, *Sicily and Sardinia are lost*

b. An attributive adjective with two or more nouns usually agrees in number with the nearest.

> **Caesaris** ***omnī*** **grātiā et opibus fruor**, *I enjoy all Cæsar's favor and resources*

2. Agreement in gender.

a. An attributive adjective with two or more nouns of different genders agrees with the nearest.

> ***cūnctae*** **terrae mariaque** or **terrae mariaque** ***cūncta***, *all lands and seas*
> **aptus ad frīgora et aestūs** ***tolerandōs***, *capable of enduring cold and heat*

b. A predicate adjective with two or more nouns of different genders will be regularly masculine plural if the nouns denote *persons*, usually neuter plural if the nouns denote *things*.

> **pater et māter *mortuī* sunt,** *father and mother are dead*
> **mūrus et portae *alta* erant,** *the wall and the gates were high*

Note 1. If nouns of different genders include both persons and things, the predicate adjective is usually neuter plural; but it may follow the persons in gender and be masculine or feminine, or may agree with the nearest noun if that is plural.

> **nātūrā *inimīca* sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx,** *by nature a free state and a king are hostile*
> **rēx rēgiaque classis *profectī* sunt,** *the king and the royal fleet set out*
> **lēgātī sortēsque ōrāculī *exspectandae* sunt,** *the ambassadors and the replies of the oracle should be awaited*

Note 2. Two or more masculine or feminine abstract nouns denoting *things* may have a predicate adjective in the neuter plural.

> **stultitia et temeritās et iniūstitia sunt *fugienda*,** *folly, rashness, and injustice are to be shunned*

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUNS

503. Plural adjectives are often used as nouns (*substantively*), the masculine to denote *men* or *people in general*; the feminine, *women*; and the neuter, *things*.

omnēs, *all men* (everybody)	**omnia,** *all things*
maiōrēs, *ancestors*	**minōrēs,** *descendants*
Rōmānī, *Romans*	**barbarī,** *barbarians*
nostrī, *our* (men)	**sua,** *their* (possessions)

> **omnēs fortia laudant,** *all men praise brave deeds*

504. Singular adjectives, especially in the neuter, are sometimes used as nouns (*substantively*).

> **lupus est *trīste* stabulīs,** *the wolf is a grievous thing for the folds*
> ***sapiēns* est rēx,** *the wise man is king*
> **māter eius erat *līberta*,** *his mother was a freedwoman*
> **nāvēs erant in *āridō*,** *the ships were on dry land*

505. When ambiguity would arise from the substantive use of an adjective, a noun must be added.

> **deī potentiam *omnium rērum* habent**, *the gods have power over everything.* [If **rērum** were not expressed, the gender of **omnium** would be uncertain.]

506. Some adjectives have become nouns.

aequālis	*a contemporary*
amīcus	*friend*
familiāris	*intimate friend*
propinquī	*relatives*
socius	*ally*
vīcīnus	*neighbor*

a. Many adjectives have become practically substantives by the omission of some noun, which is understood from constant association.

Āfricus (ventus)	*southwest wind*
September (mēnsis)	*September*
patria (terra)	*fatherland*
hīberna (castra)	*winter quarters*
trirēmis (nāvis)	*trireme*
rēgia (domus)	*royal palace*

b. Conversely, a few nouns are used as adjectives, especially those ending in **-tor** or **-trīx**: as, **victor exercitus**, *a victorious army*; **populus lātē rēx**, *a people ruling far and wide.* See also § 584.

ADJECTIVES USED AS ADVERBS

507. Adjectives are sometimes used in Latin where adverbs would be used in English.

> **Sōcratēs venēnum *laetus* hausit**, *Socrates drank the poison cheerfully*
> **erat ille Rōmae *frequēns***, *he was frequently at Rome*
> **nāvēs *tōtae* ex rōbore factae**, *ships made entirely of oak*

a. The adjectives **prior**, **prīmus**, **prīnceps**, **postrēmus**, and **ultimus** are used instead of adverbs to denote the first or last in order of time.

> **Hannibal *prīnceps* in proelium ībat, *ultimus* excēdēbat**, *Hannibal was the first to go into battle and the last to withdraw* (lit. *went first, withdrew last*)
> ***prīmus* vēnit**, *he was the first to come*

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

508. When two qualities of an object are compared, both adjectives are in the comparative. When **magis** is used, both adjectives are in the positive.

longior quam _lātior_ aciēs erat, *the line was longer than it was broad*
is erat _disertus_ magis quam _sapiēns_, *he was more eloquent than wise*

a. *Disproportion* is expressed by the comparative with **quam prō** (*than for*) and the ablative, or with **quam ut** (*than that*) or **quam quī** (*than who*) and the subjunctive.

maior sum _quam cui possit_ fortūna nocēre, *I am too great for fortune to harm me*

509. The superlative may be strengthened by the following words: **longē**, *by far*; **quam**, *as possible*, often with the addition of a form of **possum**; **ūnus**, *the one*; **vel**, *the very*, *even*.

longē nōbilissimus fuit Orgetorīx, *Orgetorix was by far the noblest*
carrōrum _quam maximum_ numerum coëmere, *to buy up the greatest possible number of wagons*
quam maximīs potest itineribus in Galliam contendit, *he hastens into Gaul by marches the greatest possible* (he is able)
Rīpheus, _iūstissimus ūnus_ in Teucrīs, *Ripheus, the one most righteous man among the Teucri*
eō tempore _vel maxima_ apud rēgem auctōritās erat, *at that time his influence with the king was the very greatest*

510. The following adjectives, mostly superlatives, denote a *part* of the object modified: **extrēmus, īmus (īnfimus), intimus, medius, postrēmus, prīmus, reliquus, summus, ultimus.**

summus mōns, *the top of the mountain*
media urbs, *the midst of the city*
Pompeius bellum _extrēmā_ hieme apparāvit, _prīmō_ vēre suscēpit, _mediā_ aestāte cōnfēcit, *Pompey prepared for war at the end of winter, began it at the beginning of spring, and finished it in midsummer*

NOTE. For other special meanings of the comparative and superlative see § 154. N.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

511. Personal pronouns have the same constructions as nouns, but are never used in the nominative except for emphasis or contrast.

tē **vocō**, *I am calling you*
quis *mē* vocat? *Ego tē* vocō, *who is calling me? I* (emphatic) *am calling you*
ego **certē meum officium praestiterō**, *I at least shall have done my duty*

a. In poetry **nōs** is sometimes used for **ego**, and **noster** for **meus**; but **vōs** and **vester** are never used for **tū** and **tuus**.

512. The Latin has no personal pronoun of the third person.[1] This want is supplied by a demonstrative or by a relative (§§ 531, 564).

is **coniūrātiōnem fēcit**, *he made a conspiracy*
quī **cum *eum* convēnissent**, *when they had met him*

513. To express possession the possessive pronominal adjectives **meus, tuus, noster, vester** are used, and not the genitive of the personal pronouns.

liber *meus*, *my book*; not **liber meī**

a. But **nostrum** and **vestrum** may be used with **omnium.**

vīta *nostra*, *our lives*
vīta *omnium nostrum*, *the lives of us all*

514. The genitives **meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī** are generally objective; **nostrum** and **vestrum**, partitive.

memoria *meī* tua est iūcunda, *your remembrance of me is delightful*
habētis ducem memorem *vestrī*, *you have a leader mindful of you*
minus habeō vīrium quam *vestrum* utervīs, *I have less strength than either of you*
pars *nostrum* mānsit, *a part of us remained*

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[1] For the reflexive **suī** see §§ 517 ff.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

515. Reflexive pronouns in their regular use stand in the predicate and refer to the subject.

516. For reflexives of the first and second persons the oblique cases of the personal pronouns **ego** and **tū** are used. The corresponding possessive adjectives are **meus** and **tuus.**

mortī *mē* obtulī, *I exposed myself to death*
hinc *tē* rēgīnae ad līmina perfer, *betake yourself hence to the queen's threshold*
***vōbīs* novēnōs *vestrī* similēs ēligite**, *pick out (for yourselves) nine like yourselves*
***nostram* patriam amāmus**, *we love our own country*

517. The reflexive pronoun of the third person is **suī** (**sibi**, **sē**). The corresponding possessive adjective is **suus** (**-a**, **-um**).

Dumnorīgem ad *sē* vocat, *he calls Dumnorix to him*
Germānī ē *suīs* fīnibus trānsībant, *the Germans were crossing over from their own territories*

518. The reflexive pronoun **suī** and the reflexive possessive adjective **suus** have two principal uses, known as the *direct* and the *indirect.*

I. Direct Reflexives

519. **Suī** and **suus** as *direct reflexives* stand in the predicate and refer to the subject of the clause (whether principal or subordinate) in which they occur.

mīles *sē* interfēcit, *the soldier killed himself*
mīles *suō* gladiō interfectus est, *the soldier was killed with his own sword*
***sē suaque* dēdidērunt**, *they surrendered themselves and their possessions*
iussī Helvētiōs in *suōs* fīnēs revertī, *I ordered the Helvetii to return into their own territory*
Caesar imperāvit hostibus ut *sē* dēderent, *Cæsar ordered the enemy to surrender (themselves)*

II. Indirect Reflexives

520. **Suī** and **suus** as *indirect reflexives* stand in a subordinate clause, either in the subject or predicate, and refer to the subject of the principal clause.

> **sentit quid *suī* cīvēs cōgitent,** *he perceives what his own fellow citizens think*
>
> **petiērunt ut *sibi* licēret,** *they begged that it might be allowed them*
>
> **dat negōtium Gallīs utī *sē* certiōrem faciant,** *he directs the Gauls to inform him*
>
> **hīs Caesar mandat ut ad *sē* revertantur,** *to these Cæsar gives orders that they return to him*

521. The use of **suī** and **suus** as indirect reflexives is regular when the subordinate clause expresses the words or thought of the subject of the principal clause. Hence it is very common in indirect discourse (§§ 883 ff.).

> **Caesar dīxit sī obsidēs ab eīs *sibi* dentur, *sē* cum eīs pācem esse factūrum,** *Cæsar said that if hostages should be given by them to him, he would make peace with them*

Note. When the subordinate clause does not express the words or thought of the subject of the principal clause, **is** is used, not **sē**, and **eius**, **eōrum**, etc., not **suus**, to refer to that subject.

522. When the use of **suī** or **suus** as an indirect reflexive would cause ambiguity, **ipse** is used instead.

> **rogāvit cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē *ipsīus* dīligentiā dēspērārent,** *he asked why they despaired of their own valor or his vigilance*

Note. Occasionally **is** is used as an indirect reflexive.

> **persuādent Rauracīs utī ūnā cum *eīs* proficīscantur,** *they persuade the Rauraci to set out with them*

523. Sometimes **suus** is used with the subject and refers to an emphatic word (especially **quisque**) in the predicate.

> **Sōcratem cīvēs *suī* interfēcērunt,** *his own fellow citizens killed Socrates*
>
> ***sua* quemque virtūs dēfendit,** *his own valor defends each one*

NOTE 1. **Suus** should not be used with the second of two subjects or of two objects to refer to the first. For example, in *Cæsar and his legions are brave*, or *I see Cæsar and his legions*, the word *his*, if expressed at all, would be **eius**, not **suae** or **suās**.

NOTE 2. Occasionally the clause to which the reflexive really belongs is absorbed.

> **studeō sānāre *sibi* ipsōs**, *I am anxious to cure these men for their own benefit* (i.e. **ut sānī *sibi* sint**, *that they may be cured for themselves*)

524. Reciprocal action or relation ("each other") is expressed by the reflexive phrases **inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē.**

> **obsidēs *inter*** **_nōs_ damus**, *we*
> **_vōs_ datis**, *you*
> **_sē_ dant**, *they*
> *give hostages to each other*

POSSESSIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

525. The possessive pronouns are pronominal adjectives agreeing with the noun to which they belong.

> **haec ōrnāmenta sunt *mea***, *these jewels are mine*

526. Possessive adjectives, when attributive, are generally omitted if they are unemphatic and plainly implied in the context.

> **ipse cum omnibus cōpiīs eōs sequī coepit**, *he himself began to follow them with all* (his) *forces*

527. Possessive attributive adjectives may be necessary for *clearness*, for *emphasis*, or for *contrast*. When used merely for clearness, the possessive adjective follows its noun; when expressed for emphasis or contrast, it regularly precedes its noun.

> **ipse cum omnibus cōpiīs *meīs* eōs sequī coepit**, *he himself began to follow them with all my forces* (**meīs** expressed for clearness)
>
> **ego dē *meō* sēnsū iūdicō**, *I judge by my own feeling* (**meō** expressed for emphasis)
>
> **Helvētiī *suīs* fīnibus eōs prohibent aut ipsī in eōrum fīnibus bellum gerunt**, *the Helvetii keep them from their own territory or themselves carry on war in* THEIR *territory* (**suīs** expressed for contrast)

528. Possessive adjectives are often used substantively, especially in the masculine and neuter plural.

> **Ariovistus in *nostrōs* impetum fēcit,** *Ariovistus made an attack upon our men* (lit. *ours*)
> **dēdite vōs *vestraque* omnia,** *surrender yourselves and all your possessions* (lit. *yours*)
> **flamma extrēma *meōrum*,** *last flames of my countrymen* (lit. *mine*)

529. The genitive of a pronoun or adjective may be used to agree with the genitive implied in a possessive adjective. Especially common are the genitives **ipsīus**, **ipsōrum**, **sōlīus**, **ūnīus**, and **omnium**.

> **mea *ipsīus* patria,** *my own country* (equivalent to *the country of me myself*)
> **tuā *sōlīus*** (or ***ūnīus***) **causā,** *for your sake alone* (equivalent to *for the sake of you alone*)
> **nostra *omnium* patria,** *the country of us all.* [This might be written also **nostrum omnium patria**; cf. §§ 345, 513. *a.*]

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

530. The demonstratives are **hic**, **iste**, **ille**, **is**, and **īdem**. They are used either as pronouns or as pronominal adjectives.

531. The demonstrative pronouns, besides their own special uses, supply the lack of a personal pronoun of the third person (§ 512). This use is regular in the oblique cases, especially of **is**.

> ***eī* fīliam dat,** *he gives him his daughter*
> **Caesar et exercitus *eius*,** *Cæsar and his army* (lit. *the army of him*)
> **obsidēs ab *eīs* dantur,** *hostages are given by them*
> ***hī* sunt fortissimī,** *they are the bravest*
> ***ille* minimum poterat,** *he had very little power*

532. As pronominal adjectives the demonstratives follow the rules for the agreement of adjectives (§§ 497 ff.).

a. A demonstrative usually agrees with an appositive or predicate noun, if there be one, rather than with the word to which it refers.

> **rērum caput *hoc* erat, *hic* fōns,** *this was the head of things, this the source*
> ***ea* vēra est pietās,** *that is true piety*

hic, iste, ille, is

533. **Hic**, *this*, is used of what is *near the speaker* in time, place, or thought. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the first person.

Iuppiter est custōs *huius* urbis, *Jupiter is the guardian of this city*
***hīs* sex diēbus**, *in the last six days*

534. **Hic** sometimes refers to the speaker himself.

nōlī trādere *hunc* hominem, *do not betray me* (lit. *this man*)

535. **Iste**, *that* (*of yours*), is used of what is *near the person addressed* in time, place, or thought. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the second person.

mūtā *istam* mentem, *change that purpose of yours*

536. From its frequent application to the views of an opponent, **iste** often implies contempt.

ūnīus ūsūram hōrae gladiātōrī *istī* nōn dedissem, *I would not have given that* (contemptible) *gladiator the enjoyment of a single hour*

537. **Ille**, *that* (*yonder*), is used of what is more or less *remote* in time, place, or thought, both from the speaker and from the person addressed. Hence it is called the demonstrative of the third person.

in *illīs* ulteriōribus mūnītiōnibus, *in those more distant fortifications*
***illa* pars quam commemorāvī**, *that part which I have mentioned*

538. **Ille**, usually following its noun, is sometimes used in the sense of *that famous*, *that well-known*.

Mēdēa *illa* quondam ex Pontō profūgit, *that well-known Medea once fled from Pontus*
Magnus *ille* Alexander, *that famous Alexander the Great*

a. In this sense **ille** may be combined with **hic**.

hoc *illud* est, *this is that well-known* (saying)
hic *ille* est, *this is that famous* (man)

539. **Ille** sometimes means *the former*, and **hic** *the latter*, of two objects previously mentioned.

> **ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor fīrmat; *illa* mātūram senectūtem, *hic* longam adulēscentiam reddit**, *sloth weakens the body, toil strengthens it; the former brings on premature old age, the latter renders youth long*

NOTE. Less frequently **hic** means *the former* and **ille** *the latter.*

540. **Is**, referring to what is either near or more remote, is a weaker demonstrative than the others, and is especially common as a personal pronoun of the third person (§ 531) or as the antecedent of a relative.

> **rēx aufūgit; *is* est in prōvinciā tuā**, *the king has fled; he is in your province*
>
> ***id* quod nātūra cōgit**, *that which nature compels*

541. **Is** in the sense of *such*, *of such a kind*, is followed by a subjunctive clause of description introduced by **quī** (§ 727).

> **nōn *is* sum quī mortis perīculō terrear**, *I am not such as to be terrified by the danger of death*

542. **Is** combined with **et** or **atque** is translated *and that too.*

> **vincula *et ea* sempiterna**, *chains and that too for life*

543. **Hic, ille,** and **is** may point either back to something just mentioned or forward to something about to be mentioned.

> ***haec* dīxit**, *these things he said*, or *he spoke as follows*

544. The English word *that* in the phrase *that of* is regularly omitted in Latin. Either the genitive construction is continued without the pronoun or the noun is repeated.

> **classis Britannōrum maior est quam *Gallōrum*** or **quam *classis Gallōrum*** (but not **quam ea Gallōrum**), *the fleet of the Britons is larger than that of the Gauls*

NOTE. In expressions like *him fleeing, those pursuing*, etc., the pronoun is left out in Latin: thus, **fugientem** (not **eum fugientem**), **sequentēs** (not **eōs sequentēs**).

īdem

545. **Īdem,** *the same,* identifies[1] the person or thing in question with one just mentioned or about to be mentioned.

eōdem **diē**, *on the same day* (as that before mentioned)

546. **Īdem quī** or **īdem atque (ac)** is translated *the same as.*

facis *idem quod* semper, *you are doing the same as always*

547. **Īdem** is sometimes best rendered *also*, *too*, *yet*, *at the same time.*

dīxī ego *īdem* in senātū, *I also said in the senate*
ōrātiō splendida et *eadem* facēta, *an oration brilliant and at the same time witty*

THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN *IPSE*

548. **Ipse,** *self,* standing either alone or in agreement with another word, expresses emphasis or contrast.

549. **Ipse** is used alone, substantively, as follows:

a. In the nominative to emphasize an omitted pronoun subject.

ipsī **recordāminī**, *you yourselves remember*
ipse **eum vīdī**, *I myself saw him*

NOTE 1. This use must be distinguished from that of the reflexive, especially as the word *self* is used in translating both. Thus, ***ipse sē*** **laudat**, *he himself praises himself*, contains both an intensive and a reflexive.

NOTE 2. **Ipse** usually agrees with the subject, even when the emphasis in English is on a reflexive in the predicate: as, **mē ipse cōnsōlor**, *I console myself.*

b. In the oblique[2] cases as an emphatic pronoun of the third person.

id erat *ipsīs* glōriōsum, *this was glorious for them themselves*

c. As an indirect reflexive pronoun (see § 522).

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[1] **Īdem** is sometimes called the identifying pronoun.

[2] The *oblique* cases include all except the nominative and vocative.

550. **Ipse** in agreement with a noun or pronoun is often best translated by *very*, *even*, *exactly*, *just*, *in person*, *of his own accord.*

> **hōc *ipsō* tempore**, *at this very time*
> ***ipsō* diē aderant**, *they were present on the very day*
> **turpe mihi *ipsī* vidēbātur**, *even to me it seemed disgraceful*
> **Crassus trienniō *ipsō* minor erat quam Antōnius**, *Crassus was just* (or *exactly*) *three years younger than Antony*

RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

551. Relative pronouns refer to a substantive called the antecedent and connect it with the clause which they introduce. The relation of the relative clause to its antecedent is an adjective relation, and the clause is regularly subordinate.

Thus, in the sentence **hī sunt Gallī *quī* victī sunt**, *these are the Gauls who were conquered*, the relative **quī** refers to **Gallī**, its antecedent, and the relative clause **quī victī sunt** is subordinate and adjective. The adjective relation is shown by the fact that an adjective may be substituted for the relative clause: as, **hī sunt *victī* Gallī**, *these are the conquered Gauls.*

Agreement of the Relative

552. A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender and number, but its case is determined by its construction in its own clause.

> **legiō *quam* sēcum habēbat**, *the legion which he had with him*
> **pōns *quī* ad Genāvam erat**, *the bridge which was near Geneva*
> **lēgēs *quibus* pārēmus**, *the laws which we obey*

a. A relative with two or more antecedents follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives (§ 502).

> **fīlius et fīlia *quōs* dīlēxit**, *the son and daughter whom he loved*
> **ōtium atque dīvitiae, *quae* prīma mortālēs putant**, *idleness and wealth, which mortals count first* (in importance)

553. A relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun rather than with its antecedent.

> **Thēbae, *quod* est caput**, *Thebes, which is the capital.* [Here **quod** agrees with **caput** and not with **Thēbae**.]

554. The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of its antecedent.

> **sub iūdice *quō* nōstī**, *under a judge whom you know* (**quō** for **quem**)

NOTE. In poetry the antecedent may be attracted into the case of the relative.

> ***urbem* quam statuō vestra est** (Vergil), *the city which I am building is yours*

555. The relative sometimes agrees with the *real meaning* of its antecedent without regard to its grammatical form.

> **equitātus *quī* vīdērunt**, *the cavalry who saw*

556. When a relative refers to a clause or a whole sentence as its antecedent, **quod**, **id quod**, or **quae rēs** is used.

> ***quod* exspectāvī, iam sum adsecūtus, ut vōs omnēs factam esse coniūrātiōnem vidērētis**, *what I waited for I have now attained,* (namely) *that you might all see that a conspiracy has been made.* [Instead of **quod**, **id quod** or **quam rem** might have been used.]

ANTECEDENT OF THE RELATIVE

557. The antecedent is often omitted when it is general, indefinite, or implied in a possessive pronoun.

> **terra reddit *quod* accēpit**, *the earth returns what it has received.* [Antecedent is general.]
> **sunt *quī* dīcant**, *there are some who say.* [Antecedent indefinite.]
> **nostrā *quī* remānsimus caede**, *by the slaughter of us who remained.* [Antecedent implied in **nostrā**.]

558. The antecedent is sometimes repeated in the relative clause.

> **erant itinera duo *quibus itineribus* domō exīre possent**, *there were two routes by which* (*routes*) *they could leave home*

559. The antecedent may stand in the relative clause, agreeing with the relative in case.

This arrangement is regular (1) when the relative clause is emphatic and stands first, or (2) when the antecedent is an appositive.

(1) ***quam*** **fēcerat** ***classem,*** **iubet convenīre,** *he orders the fleet which he had built to assemble*

quās rēs **gessī, hic versibus attigit,** *the deeds I performed he touched up in verse*

(2) **Rōma,** ***quam urbem*** **amō,** *Rome, the city that I love*

Note. In the first case a demonstrative usually stands in the antecedent clause.

quae pars **cīvitātis calamitātem intulerat,** ***ea*** **prīnceps poenās persolvit,** *that part of the state which had caused the disaster was the first to pay the penalty* (lit. *what part . . . that*)

560. The superlative of an adjective belonging to the antecedent may stand in the relative clause.

vāsa ea quae ***pulcherrima*** **apud eum vīderat,** *those most beautiful vessels which he had seen at his house*

Special Uses of the Relative

561. The relative with an abstract noun may be used in a parenthetical clause to *characterize* a person, like the English *such.*

quae **est vestra** ***prūdentia*** or ***quā prūdentiā*** **es,** *such is your prudence* (lit. *which is your prudence* or *of which prudence you are*)

562. The relatives **quī, quālis, quantus,** etc. are often rendered simply by *as.*

eadem fortūna ***quae,*** *the same fortune as*
tālis dux ***quālis,*** *such a leader as*

563. The relative is never omitted in Latin, as it often is in English.

liber ***quem*** **mihi dedistī,** *the book you gave me*

564. A relative, referring to an antecedent in the preceding sentence, often stands at the beginning of a new sentence to connect it with the sentence that precedes. It is then translated by a demonstrative or personal pronoun, with or without *and*.

> **nostrī nōn eādem alacritāte ūtēbantur. *Quod* ubi Caesar animadvertit** etc., *our men did not manifest the same eagerness. When Cæsar discovered this* etc.
>
> ***quae* cum ita sint**, (*and*) *since this is so*
>
> ***quae* quī audiēbant**, (*and*) *those who heard this*

NOTE. This is sometimes called the connecting relative. A similar use of the relative is occasionally found within a sentence.

> **rēs loquitur ipsa, *quae* semper valet plūrimum**, *the fact itself speaks, and this always has the greatest weight*

565. The rules given for the relative **quī** apply in general also to **quālis**, *of which kind, as*; **quāliscumque**, *of whatever kind*; **quīcumque**, *whoever*; and to relative adverbs, as, **ubi**, **quō**, **unde**, **quā rē**.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

566. **Quis**, *who?* interrogative pronoun, and **quī**, *of what sort?* interrogative adjective, are used to refer to one or more of an indefinite number of objects.

> ***quis* mē vocat**, *who is calling me?*
>
> ***quī* homō mē vocat**, *what sort of man is calling me?*
>
> ***quae* amīcitia est**, *what kind of friendship is it?*

NOTE. But **quis** may be used as an adjective instead of **quī**, and **quī** is sometimes used as a substantive for **quis**.

> ***quis* gladiātor invenīrī potest**, *what gladiator can be found?*

567. **Uter**, *which?* is used as an interrogative pronoun or adjective referring to one of *two* persons or things.

> **in *utrō* haec virtūs fuit, in Milōne an in Clōdiō**, *in which of the two was this excellence, in Milo or in Clodius?*

568. Other interrogatives are:

ecquis, *any at all? any one? any?*
quālis, *of what kind?*
quantus, *how great?*
quot (indecl.), *how many?*

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

569. Indefinite pronouns and adjectives indicate that *some* person, thing, or quality is meant, without closer definition.

570. Quis, substantive, *some one*, *any one*, and **quī**, adjective, *some*, *any*, are the weakest and vaguest of the indefinites. They never stand first in a clause, and usually follow **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, or **num**.

> **sī *quid* accidat**, *if anything should happen*
> **nē *quam* facultātem dīmittat**, *that he may not lose any opportunity*
> **dīxerit *quis***, *some one may say*

NOTE. The distinction between **quis** and **quī** is not always maintained (cf. § 566. N.).

571. Aliquis, substantive, *some one*, (at least) *one* (as opposed to *no one*), and **aliquī**, adjective, *some* (as opposed to *no*), are rather more definite than **quis**, **quī**.

> ***aliquī* ex nāvī**, *some from the ship*
> **quī in *aliquō* numerō sunt**, *who are of some account*

NOTE. The distinction between **aliquis** and **aliquī** is not always maintained (cf. § 566. N.).

572. Quīdam, substantive or adjective, *a certain one*, *a certain*, implies definite knowledge.

For example, **aliquī philosophī**, *some philosophers*, is wholly indefinite; but **quīdam philosophī**, *certain philosophers*, means that the philosophers are known to the speaker and could be named by him or otherwise defined.

> ***quīdam* ex mīlitibus dīxit**, *a certain one of the soldiers said*

a. The adjective **quīdam** in the sense of *a sort of*, *a kind of*, is often used to soften the meaning of a noun or adjective.

> **dīcendī singulāris *quaedam* facultās**, *a kind of unique ability in speaking*

NOTE. Sometimes, on the other hand, **quīdam** intensifies the force of the adjective.

aliō *quōdam* modō, *in an entirely different way*

573. Quisquam, substantive, *any one* (at all), and the corresponding adjective, **ūllus**, *any* (at all), are used chiefly in negative sentences, in questions expecting a negative answer, in conditions, and in clauses which follow a comparative.

neque *quisquam* ēgredī audet, *nor does any one dare to go forth*
cūr *quisquam* iūdicāret, *why should any one judge?*
sī *quisquam* est timidus, is ego sum, *if any one is timid, I am he*
neque *ūllā* necessitāte continēbantur, *nor were they restrained by any necessity*
num cēnsēs *ūllum* perīculum, *you don't think there is any danger, do you?*
saepius cum hoste cōnflīxit quam *quisquam* cum inimīcō concertāvit, *he fought more often with the enemy than any one has contended with a personal foe*

NOTE. After **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, or **num**, **quisquam** is sometimes used instead of **quis**, and is rather more emphatic.

sī quisquam, *if any one* (ever)

574. Nēmō, *no one*, is the negative of **quisquam**, *any one*, and **nūllus**, *no*, is the negative of **ūllus**, *any*.

a. **Nēmō** is sometimes used for **nūllus**; so regularly with adjectives used substantively.

***nēmō* Latīnus**, *no Latin* (*man*); not **nūllus Latīnus**
***nēmō* dīves**, *no rich man*; not **nūllus dīves**

b. **Nūllus** is sometimes used for **nēmō**, regularly so in the genitive and ablative singular (**nūllīus**, **nūllō**); and in the plural it is often a substantive.

***nūllīus* aurēs violāvit**, *he has shocked the ears of no one*
in *nūllō* flagrantius studium vīdī, *in no one have I seen more ardent zeal*
***nūllīs* est iūcundior**, *to none is he more pleasing*

NOTE. In negative commands (§ 674), *let no one* is translated by **nē quis**.

575. Nesciō quis, *some one or other* (lit. *I know not who*), often expresses contempt.

nesciō quis **loquitur**, *some one or other is speaking*
nesciō quō **pactō**, *somehow or other* (lit. *I know not in what way*)

NOTE. Observe that **nesciō**, when thus used, does not change its form and has no effect on the construction of the words that follow it (§ 820).

576. Quisque, substantive or adjective, *each one*, *each*, is often used with pronouns, superlatives, ordinals, and with **ūnus**, usually immediately after them:

a. With pronouns.

quod ***cuique*** **obtigit, id** ***quisque*** **teneat**, *what has fallen to each, that let each one keep*
sē ***quisque*** **dīligit**, *each one loves himself*
suum ***cuique***, *to each one his own*
mīlitēs ad suum ***quisque*** **oppidum rediērunt**, *the soldiers returned, each to his own town*

b. With superlatives.

optimus ***quisque*** **eī favet**, *all the best men* (lit. *each best man*) *favor him*
antīquissimum ***quodque*** **tempus**, *the most ancient times*

c. With ordinal numerals and **ūnus**.

decimus ***quisque*** **mīles**, *one soldier in ten* (lit. *each tenth soldier*)
prīmō ***quōque*** **tempore**, *at the earliest possible time*
prīmum ***quidque***, *each thing in order*
ūnus ***quisque*** **rēgum**, *each one of the kings*

577. Uterque, substantive or adjective, as distinguished from **quisque**, means *each of two*.

uterque utrīque **erat exercitus in cōnspectū**, *each army was in sight of the other* (lit. *each to each*)
pugnātum est ab ***utrīsque*** **ācriter**, *the contest was carried on vigorously by each side*

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

alius AND alter

578. **Alius**, *other, another*, and **alter**, *the other* (or *one* of two), are used both substantively and adjectively.

aliud **iter nūllum habēbant**, *they had no other way*
itinera duo, ūnum per Sēquanōs, *alterum* per prōvinciam, *two routes, one through the Sequani, the other through the province*
fuit claudus *alterō* pede, *he was lame in one foot*

a. **Alter** is generally used instead of **secundus**; cf. § 171.

b. **Aliēnus** is used instead of the genitive of **alius** to express possession.

aliēna **domus**, *another's house*

579. **Alius** and **alter** are often used in pairs as correlatives:

alter . . . alter, *the one . . . the other*
alterī . . . alterī, *the one party . . . the other party*
alius . . . alius, *one . . . another*
aliī . . . aliī, *some . . . others*
alterī **dīmicant, *alterī* victōrem timent**, *one party fights, the other fears the victor*
aliud **est maledīcere, *aliud* accūsāre**, *it is one thing to slander, another to accuse*
aliī **vāllum scindunt, *aliī* fossam complent**, *some tear down the rampart, others fill the ditch*

580. **Alius** followed by **alius** in another case in the same sentence is used to express reciprocity of action or to express the idea that *one does one thing and another does another.*

alius **ex *aliō* causam quaerit**, *they ask one another the reason*
alius aliud **petit**, *one seeks one thing, another another* (lit. *another seeks another thing*)
aliī aliam **in partem fūgērunt**, *some fled in one direction, others in another* (lit. *others fled in another direction*)

NOTE. The adverbs **aliās**, **alibī**, **aliō**, and **aliter** may be used in a similar way.

aliās **aliōs deōs precāmur**, *we pray sometimes to one god, sometimes to another*

cēterī AND **reliquī**

581. **Cēterī** means *all the rest, all the others.*

Rēmī frūmentō *cēterīsque* rēbus iuvant, *the Remi assist with grain and everything else*

582. **Reliquī**, *the remaining*, differs from **cēterī** in not emphasizing the fact that none is excepted.

***reliqua* prīvāta aedificia incendunt**, *they set fire to the remaining private buildings*

SYNTAX OF ADVERBS

583. An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

***facilius* eīs persuāsit**, *he persuaded them more easily*
***longē* dītissimus fuit**, *he was far the richest*
***minus* lātē vagantur**, *they wander less widely*

584. Adverbs sometimes appear as modifiers of nouns, the word really modified being omitted for brevity.

ignārī *ante* malōrum, *ignorant of past misfortunes* (lit. *ignorant of misfortunes previously*, a word meaning *endured* being omitted)
cōnsul *iterum*, *consul for the second time*

585. Adverbs are sometimes used like adjectives.

haec sunt *palam*, *these facts are well known*
fit *obviam* Clōdiō, *he falls in with Clodius*
duo talenta sunt *satis*, *two talents are sufficient*
forte quādam *dīvīnitus*, *by some providential chance*

586. Adverbs of quantity and place — **satis**, *enough*; **nimis**, *too much*; **parum**, *too little*; **ubi**, *where*; **nusquam**, *nowhere*; etc. — are sometimes used as nouns and modified by a partitive genitive (§ 343).

***satis* ēloquentiae**, *sufficient (of) eloquence*
***nimis* īnsidiārum**, *too much (of) trickery*
***ubi* terrārum**, *where in the world?*

587. An adverb is often equivalent to a pronoun with a preposition.

eō **(= in iīs) impōnit vāsa,** *upon them he puts the camp utensils*
apud eōs ***quō*** **(= ad quōs) sē contulit,** *among those to whom he went*
locus ***quō*** **(= ad quem) aditus nōn erat,** *a place to which there was no access*

For the formation and comparison of adverbs see §§ 269 ff.

SPECIAL ADVERBS AND THEIR USES

588. Etiam (et iam), *also, even, still,* and **quoque**, *also,* are strengthening adverbs, though **quoque** sometimes expresses merely addition. **Etiam** usually precedes the emphatic word; **quoque** regularly follows it.

etiam **inermēs armātīs occurrērunt,** *even the unarmed ran to meet the armed*
Caesar ***quoque*** **castra pōnit,** *Cæsar also pitches camp*

589. Ita and **sīc**, *so, in this way, thus,* are generally used with verbs; **tam**, *so,* expresses degree, and as a rule is used only with adjectives and adverbs.

quae cum ***ita*** **sint,** *since this is so*
sīc **sē rēs habet,** *thus the matter stands*
tam **necessāriō tempore,** *at so critical a time*

NOTE. **Tam** may be used with verbs also when correlative with **quam**.

590. Nunc, *now, at the present moment,* refers to present time or to past time conceived as present.

Iam, *now, already,* contrasts an existing condition in present, past, or future time with a preceding *different* condition. With the future, **iam** means *presently*; with negatives, *longer.*

Caesar ***nunc*** **vincit,** *Cæsar is conquering now*
Caesar ***iam*** **vincit,** *Cæsar is already conquering* (he was not before)
Caesar ***iam*** **vincēbat,** *Cæsar was already conquering* (he had not been before)
Caesar ***iam*** **vincet,** *Cæsar will conquer presently* (he is not conquering now)
nōn est ***iam*** **lēnitātī locus,** *there is no longer room for mercy* (there may have been before)

591. **Prīmum** means *first, in the first place,* in a series of events or acts. **Prīmō** means *at first,* as opposed to *afterwards.*

> **hoc *prīmum* sentiō,** *in the first place I think this*
> **aedīs *prīmō* ruere rēbāmur,** *at first we thought the house was falling down*

Note. **Prīmum** or **prīmō** often means *for the first time*; similarly **tertium** or **tertiō,** *for the third time*; **quārtum** or **quārtō,** *for the fourth time*; etc. *For the second time* is expressed by **iterum.**

a. Enumerations are introduced by **prīmum** or **prīmō** and may be closed by **postrēmō** or **dēnique,** *finally, at last.* The intervening steps are introduced by **deinde, inde,** or **posteā,** *secondly, next, later,* followed by **tum,** *then,* repeated as often as necessary.

> ***prīmum* mihi vidētur dē genere bellī, *deinde* dē magnitūdine, *tum* dē imperātōre dēligendō esse dīcendum,** *first it seems to me that I should speak of the character of the war, next of its magnitude, then of the choice of a commander*

Note. Instead of repeating **tum,** *then,* the ordinals in **-um** may be used: as, **quārtum,** *fourth*; **quīntum,** *fifth*; etc.

592. **Quidem,** *indeed, to be sure,* follows the word it emphasizes. Often the clause with **quidem** makes a statement, which, while granted to be true, is shown by a succeeding statement, introduced by *but* (**sed, autem,** etc.), to have little value.

> **amīcum tuum nōn *quidem* ōdimus, sed certē nōn probāmus,** *we do not to be sure hate your friend, but we certainly do not approve of him*

a. **Nē . . . quidem** means *not even.* The emphatic word or words must stand between **nē** and **quidem.**

> ***nē* dī *quidem* immortālēs parēs eīs sunt,** *not even the immortal gods are a match for them*

Note. **Equidem** is used like **quidem,** but is rare except with the first person.

593. **Nē,** *surely* (to be distinguished from the conjunction **nē,** *lest, that not, not*), is regularly followed by a personal or a demonstrative pronoun.

> ***nē* illī vehementer errant,** *surely they are greatly mistaken*

NEGATIVE ADVERBS

594. The common negative adverbs are **nōn**, **nē**, and **haud**.

Nōn is the usual negative, **nē** is used with certain subjunctives and the imperative, and **haud** with adjectives and adverbs and in the phrase **haud sciō an**, *I don't know but.*

NOTE. **Nūllus** is sometimes used colloquially for **nōn.**

595. Two negatives cancel each other and are equivalent to an affirmative.

nōn nūllī, *some* (lit. *not none*)
nōn nihil, *something* (lit. *not nothing*)
nōn nēmō, *some one* (lit. *not no one*)

a. But when words of general negation, like **nōn, nihil, numquam,** etc., are followed by **nec . . . nec, neque . . . neque, nōn modo, nē . . . quidem**, the negation is not destroyed but is distributed among the separate subordinate members.

numquam **Scīpiōnem** ***nē*** **minimā** ***quidem*** **rē offendī**, *never did I give offense to Scipio even in the smallest matter*
nēmō **umquam** ***neque*** **poēta** ***neque*** **ōrātor fuit**, *there was never any one, either poet or orator*

NOTE. The proper translation of **nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidem** with a common verb in the second member is *not only* NOT . . . *but not even*, **nōn modo** being used instead of **nōn modo nōn.**

adsentātiō ***nōn modo*** **amīcō** ***sed nē*** **līberō** ***quidem*** **digna est**, *flattery is not only not becoming to a friend but not even to a gentleman*

596. In the second of two connected ideas, *and not* is regularly expressed by **neque (nec)**, not by **et nōn**. So also **negō**, *I deny*, is preferred to **dīcō nōn.**

hostēs terga vertērunt ***neque*** **fugere dēstitērunt**, *the enemy turned and fled and did not stop fleeing*
negant **quicquam esse bonum**, *they say that nothing is good* (lit. *they deny that anything is good*)

SYNTAX OF CONJUNCTIONS

597. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, or sentences. They are divided into two classes, coördinating and subordinating (§ 279).

USE OF COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

598. Coördinating conjunctions are of five varieties:

I. Copulative.
II. Disjunctive.
III. Adversative.
IV. Causal.
V. Inferential.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS

599. Copulative conjunctions, meaning *and*, *also*, *and not*, unite similar constructions. The principal copulative conjunctions are **et**, **-que**, **atque** (**ac**), **neque** (**nec**).

600. **Et**, *and*, simply *connects* words or clauses.

Castor *et* Pollūx, *Castor and Pollux*
cum coniugibus *et* līberīs, *with wives and children*

601. The enclitic **-que**, *and*, is attached to the word that it connects, and combines more closely than **et**.

senātus *populusque* Rōmānus, *the senate and the Roman people* (combining to form the governing power)
ferrō *ignīque*, *with fire and sword* (the combined means of devastation)

a. When **-que** connects a phrase or clause, it is usually attached to the first word of that phrase or clause; but if the first word is a preposition, **-que** is usually attached to the second word.

ob *eāsque* rēs supplicātiō dēcrēta est, *and for these reasons a thanksgiving was decreed*

NOTE. The enclitic **-que** should not be attached to a word ending in **c** or **e**.

602. **Atque** or **ac**, *and, and so, and what is more*, generally throws some emphasis on what is added. **Atque** is used before either vowels or consonants; **ac**, as a rule, only before consonants.

omnia honesta *atque* inhonesta, *all things honorable and, what is more, dishonorable*
***ac* Bibracte īre contendit**, *and so he hastened to go to Bibracte*

a. **Atque** or **ac** is used after words of *likeness*, *unlikeness*, or *comparison*, in the sense of *as*, *than*.

īdem *ac*, *the same as*
nōn secus (nōn aliter) *ac* sī, *not otherwise than if*
haud minus *ac*, *no less than, just as*
alius *ac*, *other than*

603. **Neque** or **nec**, *and not, neither, nor*, is generally used for **et nōn** (§ 596); and **nēve** or **neu** for **et nē**.

nē abs tē hanc sēgregēs *neu* dēserās, *do not put her away from you nor desert her*

604. **Correlatives.** Copulative conjunctions are often used in pairs, or are repeated in successive coördinate clauses.

et . . . et
-que . . . -que } *both . . . and*
neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), *neither . . . nor*
cum . . . tum, *while . . . at the same time, not only . . . but also*

605. **Enumerations.** In naming the members of a series, (1) all connectives may be omitted (see § 619); (2) **et** may precede each member, or each but the first; (3) **-que** may be attached to the last of the series.

(1) **pater, māter, frāter, soror**
(2) **(*et*) pater *et* māter *et* frāter *et* soror**
(3) **pater, māter, frāter, *sororque*** } *father, mother, brother, and sister*

II. Disjunctive Conjunctions

606. Disjunctive conjunctions, meaning *or*, and, as correlatives (§ 610), *either . . . or*, offer a choice between objects. The principal disjunctive conjunctions are **aut**, **vel**, **sive** (**seu**).

607. **Aut**, *or*, has the power of excluding, and indicates that only one of the objects or ideas presented can be true, or, at least, that they are strongly contrasted or essentially different.

> **animus *aut* est *aut* nōn est**, *the soul either exists or it does not*
> **omne ēnūntiātum *aut* vērum *aut* falsum est**, *every proposition is either true or false*

608. **Vel**, *or*, is the old imperative of **volō**, *wish*, and means literally *wish, take your choice.* It is used to connect objects or ideas that are not mutually exclusive, and indicates that any one or all of them may be chosen.

> **Catilīnam ex urbe *vel* ēiēcimus *vel* ēmīsimus**, *Catiline we have either cast out of the city or* (if you choose) *we have let him out*
> **imbēcilliōrēs *vel* animō *vel* fortūnā**, *inferior either in spirit or in fortune* (meaning in either respect or in both)

Note. **Vel** is sometimes an intensive particle meaning *even*, *for instance*: as, ***vel* minimus**, *even the least.*

a. The enclitic **-ve**, *or*, is a weakened form of **vel**, and is used to express a distinction so unimportant as to be a matter of indifference.

> **tēlum *tormentumve***, *a weapon or an engine of war* (it is unimportant which you call it)

609. **Sīve** or **seu**, *or*, has about the force of **vel**, and is often used to connect alternative names for the same thing.

> **hoc Platō *sīve* quis alius dīxit**, *Plato or some one else said this*
> **hic discessus *sīve* potius turpissima fuga**, *this departure or rather this most disgraceful flight*

For **sīve**, *or if*, connecting conditions, see § 777.

610. Correlatives. Disjunctive conjunctions are often used in pairs, or are repeated in successive coördinate clauses.

aut . . . aut **vel . . . vel**	*either . . . or*

sīve (**seu**) . . . **sīve** (**seu**), *whether . . . or*

III. Adversative Conjunctions

611. Adversative conjunctions, meaning *but*, *yet*, *however*, etc., denote opposition or contrast. The principal adversative conjunctions are **sed**, **vērum**, **vērō**, **autem**, **tamen**, **at**.

612. Sed, the usual word for *but*, and **vērum**, *but in truth*, *but*, are used to modify or oppose what precedes, especially after negatives (*not this . . . but something else*).

nihil Sēquanī respondērunt, *sed* tacitī permānsērunt, *the Sequani made no reply, but remained silent*

nōn modo iniussū suō *sed* etiam īnscientibus ipsīs, *not only against his orders but also without their knowledge*

pācem habēbimus, *vērum* cruentam, *we shall have peace, but in truth a bloody one*

a. Both **sed** and **vērum** may be used to mark a return to the main thought after a digression.

sed (or ***vērum***) **redeō ad rem**, *but I return to the subject*

613. Vērō (postpositive[1]), *but, in fact*, is generally stronger than **sed** or **vērum**.

haec sunt leviōra, illa *vērō* gravia, *these things are somewhat trivial, but those weighty*

Note. **Tum vērō**, *then in truth*, *then verily*, is used in narrative to introduce the climax or crisis of a series of events. **Iam vērō** marks a transition.

***tum vērō* clāmōre audītō nostrī ācrius impugnāre coepērunt**, *then verily, when they heard the shouting, our men began to fight more fiercely*

***iam vērō* aegritūdinēs oblīviōne lēniuntur**, *but again, sorrows are healed by forgetfulness*

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[1] A postpositive word is one that never begins a sentence, but stands after one or more words.

614. **Autem** (postpositive), *however, moreover, now,* is the weakest of the adversatives. It neither contradicts what precedes nor marks a sharp contrast, but indicates merely a transition to a new thought.

> **prō multitūdine *autem* hominum** etc., *in proportion to the number of inhabitants, moreover*, etc.

615. **Tamen**, *nevertheless,* declares something as true in spite of what precedes. It may stand first or follow an emphatic word.

> **locum reperit mūnītum ; *tamen* hunc oppugnāre contendit**, *he finds the place fortified ; nevertheless he strives to storm it*

616. **At** (old form **ast**) may be used like **sed, vērum,** or **vērō,** but is used especially to introduce (*a*) a new phase of a situation or a new point in the argument, (*b*) the supposed objection of an adversary, being then usually strengthened by **enim,** or (*c*) a change of scene or speaker.

> ***at* dīcēs** etc., *but you will say* etc.
> **ad nāvīs tendēbat Achātēs. *At* Cytherēa** etc., *Achates hastened to the ships. But Cytherea* etc.

NOTE. For **quamquam** in the sense of *and yet, however*, see § 807.

IV. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS

617. The causal conjunctions, meaning *for,* explain or give the reason for a preceding statement. The principal causal conjunctions are **nam, namque, enim, etenim.**

> **is pāgus appellābātur Tigurīnus ; *nam* cīvitās in quattuor pāgōs dīvīsa est**, *that canton was called Tigurinus ; for the state was divided into four cantons*

a. **Enim** is postpositive except in early Latin, where it means *indeed, verily.*

V. INFERENTIAL CONJUNCTIONS

618. Inferential conjunctions, meaning *therefore, and so,* introduce the natural result or logical inference of what precedes. The principal inferential conjunctions are **ergō, igitur, itaque.**

> **Dumnorīx novīs rēbus studēbat.** ***Itaque*** **rem suscipit**, *Dumnorix was eager for a revolution. And so he undertook the business*

a. **Igitur** is usually postpositive. It is sometimes used to resume an interrupted narrative and may then be translated *as I was saying.*

. Subordinating conjunctions are discussed in connection with the various subordinate clauses introduced by them.

ASYNDETON

619. Asyndeton is the omission of conjunctions between two or more coördinate words, phrases, or sentences where they would be naturally expected. The effect, except in a few common expressions like the names of the consuls in dates (as, **L. Pīsōne A. Gabīniō cōnsulibus**, *in the consulship of Lucius Piso and Aulus Gabinius*), is to produce rhetorical emphasis.

> **iūra, lēgēs, agrōs, lībertātem nōbīs relīquērunt**, *they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty*
> **abiit, excessit, ēvāsit, ērūpit**, *he has gone, withdrawn, escaped, burst forth*

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS

620. Questions are either real or rhetorical.

a. A real question is one that seeks for information, and the verb is in the indicative.

> **quid facis**, *what are you doing?*

b. A rhetorical question is interrogative in form, but does not seek information nor expect an answer. It answers itself and is, in fact, an emphatic assertion of something. The verb is either indicative or subjunctive (§§ 678, 679).

num etiam recentium iniūriārum memoriam dēpōnere possum, *I can't forget the recent wrongs too, can I?* [Equivalent to the assertion *I can't forget them.*]

quid facerem, *what was I to do?* [Equivalent to *I couldn't do anything.*]

621. Questions are either direct or indirect.

a. A direct question retains the form used in asking it.

quid est, *what is it?* **ubi sum,** *where am I?*

b. An indirect question reports the substance of a question in the form of a dependent clause. The verb is in the subjunctive (§ 812).

rogō *quid sit*, *I ask what it is*
nescit *ubi sit*, *he does not know where he is*

NOTE. For exclamatory questions with the infinitive cf. § 843.

622. Questions either inquire as to the truth or falsity of something, and expect the answer *yes* or *no*; or they inquire as to some detail or circumstance.

"YES" OR "NO" QUESTIONS

623. "Yes" or "No" questions are introduced by **-ne, nōnne,** or **num** as follows:

a. By **-ne** (attached to the emphatic word), asking for information.

***mortemne* timet,** *does he fear death?* or *is it death that he fears?*

b. By **nōnne,** implying the answer *yes.*

***nōnne* mortem timet,** *does n't he fear death?*

c. By **num,** implying the answer *no.*

***num* mortem timet,** *he does n't fear death, does he?*

NOTE. The particle **-ne** sometimes has the force of **nōnne,** especially when added to the verb.

***meministīne* mē in senātū dīcere,** *don't you remember my saying in the senate?*

624. "Yes" or "No" questions sometimes have no introductory word, especially if the first word of the question is **nōn**.

mortem timet, *does he fear death?*
patēre tua cōnsilia nōn sentīs, *do you not see that your schemes are manifest?*
nōn fugis hinc, *do you not flee hence?*

QUESTIONS OF DETAIL OR CIRCUMSTANCE

625. Questions inquiring into some detail or circumstance are introduced, as in English, by interrogative pronouns or adverbs.

***quid* exspectās**, *what are you looking forward to?*
***quem* socium dēfendistis**, *what ally have you defended?*
***quandō* et *quō* īs**, *when and whither are you going?*

626. The enclitic **-nam** may be added to interrogative pronouns or adverbs for the sake of emphasis.

***quisnam* est**, *who, pray, is it?*
***ubinam* gentium sumus**, *where in the world are we?*

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

627. An alternative question is an inquiry as to which of two or more cases is true. It is introduced as follows:

utrum . . . an
-ne . . . an } (*whether*) . . . *or*
—— . . . an

***utrum* haec vēra *an* falsa sunt**
***vērane* haec *an* falsa sunt** } *are these things true or false?*
haec vēra *an* falsa sunt

NOTE. Observe that introductory **utrum** or **-ne** in a direct alternative question has no English equivalent.

a. *Or not* is expressed by **annōn** when the alternative question is direct, usually by **necne** when it is indirect (§ 817).

utrum haec sunt vēra *annōn*, *are these things true or not?*
rogat utrum haec sint vēra *necne*, *he asks whether these things are true or not*

b. Sometimes the first member of an alternative question is omitted, and **an** alone asks the question, usually with indignation or surprise.

> ***an*** **invidiam posteritātis timēs,** (*or*) *do you fear the hatred of future years?*
> ***an*** **Pamphilus vēnit,** *has Pamphilus really come?*

628. Alternative questions asking *which of two* things is true must be distinguished from single questions asking whether *either* is true. In the latter case *or* is expressed by **aut** or **vel**.

> ***utrum*** **nescīs,** ***an*** **prō nihilō id putās,** *don't you know, or do you think nothing of it?* [Alternative question.]
> **estne urbs magna** ***aut*** **pulchra,** *is the city large or beautiful?* [Single question.]
> **num** ***vel*** **Caucasum trānscendere potuit** ***vel*** **Gangem trānsnatāre,** *could it either climb over the Caucasus or swim across the Ganges?* [Single question.]

ANSWERS

629. There is no one Latin word meaning simply *yes* or *no*.

a. The answer *yes* may be expressed by repeating the verb of the question, or by an affirmative adverb — **vērō**, **ita**, **etiam**, **sānē**, etc.

> **valetne,** *is he well?* ***valet,*** *he is,* or ***vērō,*** *truly*

b. The answer *no* is expressed by repeating the verb of the question with a negative, or by a negative adverb — **nōn**, **minimē**, etc.

> **valetne,** *is he well?* ***nōn valet,*** *he is not well,* or ***nōn,*** *not so*

630. The answer to an alternative question is expressed by repeating all or part of one member of it.

> **utrum vīdistī an audīvistī,** *did you see it or hear it?* ***egomet vīdī,*** *I saw it myself*

SYNTAX OF VERBS

AGREEMENT OF VERB AND SUBJECT

AGREEMENT WITH ONE SUBJECT

631. A verb agrees with its subject in number and person.

Rōmulus urbem *condidit*, *Romulus founded the city*
hī omnēs inter sē *differunt*, *all these differ from one another*
nōs *dēsumus*, *we are wanting*

a. In verb forms containing a participle, the participle agrees with the subject in gender as well as in number.

Gallia est *dīvīsa* in partīs trēs, *Gaul is divided into three parts*

632. A verb sometimes agrees, not with its subject, but with a predicate noun or an appositive.

amantium īrae amōris integrātiō *est*, *the quarrels of lovers are the renewal of love*
Corinthus lūmen Graeciae *exstīnctum est*, *Corinth, the light of Greece, has been put out*

633. The verb sometimes agrees with the real meaning of the subject without regard to its grammatical form.

multitūdō *abeunt*. *the multitude depart.* [Number.]
decem mīlia *occīsī sunt*, *ten thousand were slain.* [Gender.]

AGREEMENT WITH TWO OR MORE SUBJECTS

634. Number. With two or more singular subjects the verb is regularly plural.

pater et avus mortuī *sunt*, *his father and grandfather are dead*

a. The verb sometimes agrees with the nearest subject and is understood with the others.

fīlia atque ūnus ē fīliīs *captus est*, *his daughter and one of his sons were captured* *b.* When subjects unite to make a single whole, the verb is singular.

senātus populusque Rōmānus ***intellegit***, *the senate and the Roman people understand*

635. With singular subjects connected by disjunctives (§ 606) the verb is usually singular.

neque fidēs neque iūs iūrandum eum ***repressit***, *neither fidelity nor his oath restrained him*

636. Person. When the subjects are of different persons, the verb is in the first person rather than the second and in the second rather than the third.

sī tū et Tullia ***valētis***, **ego et Cicerō** ***valēmus***, *if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well*

NOTE. Contrary to English usage, courtesy in Latin requires that the first person be mentioned *first*. So in the example above, *Cicero and I* is rendered **ego et Cicerō**.

637. When the subject is a relative pronoun, the verb takes the person of the antecedent.

adsum quī ***fēcī***, *here am I who did it*

638. Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in a verb form follows the rules for the agreement of predicate adjectives. See § 502. 2.

OMISSION OF SUBJECT OR VERB

639. The subject is omitted when it is an unemphatic personal pronoun (§ 511).

putāmus, *we think* **dīcunt**, *they say*

640. The present indicative and infinitive of **sum**, and indicative tenses of other common verbs, are often omitted.

tū coniūnx, *you* (are) *his wife*
quid multa, *why* (say) *much?*
Aeolus haec contrā, *Æolus* (spoke) *thus in reply*

MOODS AND TENSES IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

641. The Moods express by the form of the verb the *way* in which the subject regards the action — as true, desired, doubtful, etc.; and the Tenses express the *time* of the action.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD

642. The indicative mood is used to state something as a fact or to inquire as to facts. This inherent function of the indicative is the same both in principal and in subordinate clauses.

643. Special Uses. The indicative is sometimes used where the English idiom would suggest the subjunctive (cf. § 797):

a. In expressions of duty, propriety, ability, and the like, especially when using the passive periphrastic conjugation.

haec condiciō nōn *accipienda fuit*, *this condition should not have been accepted*
eum colere *dēbuistī*, *you ought to have revered him*
multa dīcere *possum*, *I might say much*

b. In such expressions as **longum est**, *it would be tedious*; **difficile est**, *it would be difficult*; **melius fuit**, *it would have been better*; etc.

***longum est* omnēs nōmināre,** *it would be tedious to name them all*

Tenses of the Indicative

644. The tenses of the indicative are six in number: the present, past descriptive,[1] future, perfect (divided into present perfect[2] and past absolute[3]), past perfect,[4] future perfect.

645. The Latin tenses express:

a. The period of time — present, past, or future.

b. The kind of action — going on, completed, or indefinite as to continuation or completion.

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[1] Also called the imperfect.

[2] Also called the perfect definite.

[3] Also called the perfect indefinite.

[4] Also called the pluperfect.

646. The Latin has no special forms for action indefinite as to continuation or completion; hence, in some cases, the same form has a double use.

TABLE OF TENSES

TIME	KIND OF ACTION		
	GOING ON	COMPLETED	INDEFINITE
PRESENT	Pres. **dūcō**, *I am leading*	Pres. Perf. **dūxī**, *I have led*	Pres. **dūcō**, *I lead*
PAST	Past Descrip. **dūcēbam**, *I was leading*	Past Perf. **dūxeram**, *I had led*	Past Absolute **dūxī**, *I led*
FUTURE	Fut. **dūcam**, *I shall be leading*	Fut. Perf. **dūxerō**, *I shall have led*	Fut. **dūcam**, *I shall lead*

Present Indicative

647. The present indicative represents the action or state (*a*) as now existing or going on; (*b*) as a general truth.

(*a*) **Germānī trāns Rhēnum *incolunt***, *the Germans live across the Rhine*
(*b*) **obsequium amīcos *parit***, *flattery gains friends*

NOTE. The present of a general truth is called the *gnomic* present.

Special Uses of the Present

648. The Historical Present. In lively narration a past action is often expressed by the present.

ad eum *accurrunt* atque *docent*, *they ran up to him and pointed out* etc.
Caesar castra *movet*, *Cæsar moved his camp*

NOTE. The historical present may be translated by either a present or a past tense.

a. With **dum** meaning *while*, in the sense of DURING *the time that*, the historical present is regular (§ 763).

dum haec *geruntur*, *while this was going on*

NOTE. A past tense with **dum** meaning *while*, ALL *the time that*, or *as long as* makes the time emphatic by contrast.

> **dum *eram* vōbīscum, animum meum nōn vidēbātis,** *while I was with you, you did not see my soul.* [Here the time when he was alive is contrasted with that after death.]

649. The Conative Present. The present sometimes denotes an action *attempted* or *merely begun.*

> **iam manū *tenet*,** *already he tries to seize him*
> **dēnsōs *fertur* in hostīs,** *he starts to rush into the thickest of the foe*

650. The Present with *iam diū* etc. With **iam, iam diū, iam dūdum,** etc. (*already, now for a long time*), the present is used in the sense of the English perfect to denote an action begun in the past and continuing in the present.

> **iam diū *ignōrō* quid agās,** *now for a long time I have not known what you were doing*
> **tē iam dūdum *hortor*,** *I have been urging you now for a long time*

651. The Annalistic Present. The present may be used for the perfect in a summary enumeration of past events.

> **Rōma interim *crēscit* Albae ruīnīs : *duplicātur* cīvium numerus ; Caelius *additur* urbī mōns,** *Rome meanwhile grows as a result of the fall of Alba : the number of citizens is doubled ; the Cælian hill is added to the town*

Past Descriptive[1] Indicative

652. The past descriptive indicative has two uses : (*a*) to denote an action going on or repeated in past time ; (*b*) to *describe* a situation in past time or a past occurrence.

> (*a*) **Gallī inter sē obsidēs *dabant*,** *the Gauls were giving hostages to each other*
> **sē in proxima oppida *recipiēbant*,** *they used to retreat to the nearest towns*
> (*b*) ***erant* omnīnō duo itinera,** *there were in all two ways*
> **palūs *erat* nōn magna,** *there was a small marsh*

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[1] Also called the imperfect.

Note. In its descriptive use the past descriptive is usually translated by the English past, since the English fails to distinguish between the past descriptive and the past absolute (§ 658. II). For example, **Haeduī graviter ferēbant** and **Haeduī graviter tulērunt** are both rendered *the Hædui were annoyed*; but the first sentence describes a situation, and the second merely states a fact.

Special Uses of the Past Descriptive

653. The Conative Past Descriptive. The past descriptive, like the present, sometimes denotes an action *attempted* or *merely begun.*

eum in exsilium *ēiciēbam*, *I was trying to send him into exile*
nostrōs *prohibēbant*, *they tried to keep back our men*

654. The Past Descriptive with *iam diū* etc. With **iam, iam diū, iam dūdum,** etc. (*already, now for a long time*), the past descriptive is used in the sense of the English past perfect to denote an action or state continuing in the past but begun at some previous time (cf. § 650).

domicilium Rōmae iam diū *habēbat*, *he had now for a long time had his residence at Rome*

Future Indicative

655. The future indicative denotes an action or state that will take place or be going on in future time.

meam lībertātem *recuperābō*, *I shall regain my freedom*
mea *erit* culpa, *it will be my own fault*

Note. The distinction felt in English between *shall* and *will* in the first person is usually disregarded in Latin, both ideas being expressed by the same future form. Thus **moriar** may mean, according to context, *I shall die* (futurity) or *I will die* (determination).

656. The future may have the force of an imperative.

tū hodiē apud mē *cēnābis*, *you will dine with me to-day*

657. The English present is often used for the future. We say, for example, *if he comes*, meaning *if he* **shall** *come.* This use of the present is rare in Latin, the more regular future being preferred.

Perfect Indicative

658. The perfect indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the present perfect[1] it represents the action as completed in present time, and is rendered by the English perfect with *have*.

nunc opus *exēgī*, *now I have finished my work*
ut suprā *dēmōnstrāvimus*, *as we have shown above*

II. As the past absolute[2] it represents the action as having taken place at some undefined point of past time, and is rendered by the English past.

is coniūrātiōnem nōbilitātis *fēcit*, *he made a conspiracy of the nobility*
eō exercitum *dūxit*, *he led his army thither*
vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, *I came, I saw, I conquered*

a. In narrative the perfect (or historical present) tells the leading events, while the past descriptive describes the circumstances that attended these events (cf. § 652. *b*).

plānitiēs erat magna et in eā tumulus satis grandis. Hic locus aequō ferē spatiō ab castrīs Ariovistī et Caesaris aberat. Eō ad conloquium *vēnērunt*, *there was a large plain and on it a hill of considerable size. This place was about equally distant from the camp of Ariovistus and that of Cæsar. Thither they came for a conference.* [Note the two sentences *describing* a place followed by the sentence stating what happened there.]

Special Uses of the Perfect

659. The perfect is sometimes used to contrast a past condition of things with a present condition.

fīlium habeō, immō *habuī*, *I have a son; no, I had one*
***fuimus* Trōes, *fuit* Īlium,** *we have ceased to be Trojans, Ilium is no more* (lit. *we were Trojans, Ilium was*)

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[1] Sometimes called the perfect definite.

[2] Sometimes called the historical perfect or perfect indefinite.

660. The present perfect sometimes denotes a present state resulting from a completed act. Such a perfect is rendered by the present. Among these perfects are:

meminī, *I remember* (*I have called to mind*)
nōvī or **cognōvī**, *I know* (*I have learned*)
ōdī, *I hate*
cōnsuēvī, *I am accustomed* (*I have grown accustomed*)

NOTE. The past perfect and future perfect of such verbs are rendered by the past descriptive or the perfect and by the future respectively.

nōveram, *I knew*, *I have known*   **nōverō**, *I shall know*

Past Perfect[1] Indicative

661. The past perfect indicative denotes an action or state completed in past time.

omnēs cīvitātēs *dēfēcerant*, *all the states had revolted*

Future Perfect Indicative

662. The future perfect indicative denotes an action or state that will be completed in future time.

ego certē meum officium *praestiterō*, *I at least shall have done my duty*

663. Latin is far more exact than English in the use of tenses. Hence the future perfect is much commoner in Latin than in English. It may be used to translate an English future or even an English present, when exactness of expression demands a future perfect: thus, *when you come, you will find out* is translated **cum *vēneris*, cognōscēs**.

Epistolary Tenses

664. In letters the writer, instead of using tenses suited to the time of writing, sometimes uses tenses that will be suitable when his letter is received. Tenses so used are called *epistolary*.

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[1] Also called the pluperfect.

Thus he may use the past descriptive or the perfect for actions and events that are present, and the past perfect for those that are past.

> **nihil *habēbam* quod ad tē scrīberem ; ad tuās omnīs epistulās iam *rescrīpseram*.** *I have nothing to write to you ; I have already answered all your letters* (lit. *I had nothing to write to you ; I had already* etc.)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD

665. The Latin subjunctive[1] is used to express something as *willed*, as *desired*, or as *possible*. It is found both in independent and in subordinate clauses.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

666. The tenses of the subjunctive are four in number: the present, past,[2] perfect, and past perfect.[3]

667. The four tenses of the subjunctive have in general the same temporal force as the corresponding tenses of the indicative.

> **videō quid *faciās*,** *I see what you are doing*
> **vidēbam quid *facerēs*,** *I saw what you were doing*
> **videō quid *fēceris*,** *I see what you have done*
> **vidēbam quid *fēcissēs*,** *I saw what you had done*

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[1] The Latin subjunctive is the result of the fusion of two distinct moods of the Indo-European parent speech, the subjunctive and the optative, and has kept the characteristic meanings of each. The Indo-European subjunctive expressed (*a*) the *will* of the speaker, (*b*) *futurity*; the Indo-European optative expressed (*a*) the *wish* of the speaker, (*b*) *possibility*. The Latin subjunctive inherited all these powers, but its use as a pure future (like the future indicative) disappeared at an early period, except in certain kinds of subordinate clauses, and even here the future force of the mood may perhaps be traced to a different origin.

[2] Also called the imperfect.

[3] Also called the pluperfect.

668. The subjunctive lacks the future and the future perfect, but any subjunctive tense may in some constructions express futurity. (See also § 698. *a*, *b*.)

> **pereat**, *may I perish!*
> **quid** ***faciam***, *what shall I do?*
> **rogāvī quid** ***facerem***, *I asked what I should do*
> ***dīxerit*** **aliquis**, *some one may say*
> **dēmōnstrāvit, sī** ***vēnissent***, **multōs interitūrōs**, *he showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish*

a. The place of the future is supplied by the subjunctive present or past of the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 249. *a*) whenever the use of the ordinary subjunctive forms would be ambiguous.

> **videō quid** ***factūrus sīs***, *I see what you will (are going to) do*
> **vidēbam quid** ***factūrus essēs***, *I saw what you would (were going to) do*

669. In wishes (§ 681. II. 1) and in conditions contrary to fact (§ 786) the past subjunctive refers to the present.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

670. The subjunctive in independent sentences represents an act or state as —

Willed — the VOLITIVE subjunctive.
Desired — the OPTATIVE subjunctive.
Possible — the POTENTIAL subjunctive.[1]

The Volitive Subjunctive

671. The volitive subjunctive represents an act or state as *willed*, implying authority. This subjunctive comprises:

I. The Hortatory.
II. The Jussive.
III. The Concessive.
IV. The Deliberative.

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[1] The potential subjunctive is often called the subjunctive of contingent futurity.

I. *The Hortatory Subjunctive*

672. The hortatory subjunctive expresses an *exhortation*, regularly in the first person plural of the present. The negative is **nē**.

proficīscāmur, *let us set out*
optēmus* potius quam *querāmur, *let us pray rather than complain*
nē hōs latrōnēs *interficiāmus*, *let us not kill these robbers*
nē dictō *pāreāmus*, *let us not obey the order*

II. *The Jussive Subjunctive*

673. The jussive subjunctive expresses a *command* or a *prohibition*. The negative is **nē**.

674. In commands the jussive subjunctive is regularly confined to the present, third person singular or plural.

obsidēs *reddat*, *let him return the hostages*
Aeolus *rēgnet*, *let Æolus reign*
***sēcēdant* improbī, *sēcernant* sē ā bonīs**, *let the wicked depart, let them separate themselves from the good*
***dēsinant* īnsidiārī cōnsulī**, *let them cease lying in wait for the consul*

a. The second person of the jussive subjunctive is used only of an indefinite subject and in poetry.

istō bonō *ūtāre* dum adsit, *use that blessing while it is present*
***doceās* iter** (Vergil), *show us the way*
***remittās* quaerere** (Horace), *cease to question*

675. In prohibitions the jussive subjunctive with **nē** is in the second person, singular or plural. The tense may be either present or perfect, with no apparent difference in meaning.

nē *metuās*, *don't fear*	**nē *mentiāris***, *don't lie*
hoc nē *fēcerīs*, *don't do this*	**nē *dēspexerīs***, *do not despise*

But neither of these forms of expression is common in classic prose.

676. Prohibition is regularly expressed in two ways:

a. By **nōlī** (singular) or **nōlīte** (plural) with the present infinitive.

nōlī putāre, *don't think* (lit. *be unwilling to think*)
nōlī mē tangere, *don't touch me*

b. Less commonly by **cavē** (*take care*), **cavē nē**, or **fac nē** (*see to it lest*), with the present subjunctive (§ 720).

cavē (**nē**), or **fac nē**, **putēs**, *take care not to think* (lit. *take care*, or *see to it*, *lest you think*)

For the imperative in prohibitions see § 690. *a.* N.

III. *The Concessive Subjunctive*

677. The subjunctive may be used to *concede* or *grant* something for the sake of argument. The present is used for present time, the perfect for past. The negative is **nē**.

***sit* fūr; at est bonus imperātor**, *grant that he is a thief, yet he is a good general*
***sit* Scīpiō ille clārus**, *grant that Scipio is famous*
nē *fuerit* tālis aliīs, *suppose that he was not such to others*
***sit* hoc malum, nōn summum certē est malum**, *grant that this is an evil, certainly it is not the greatest evil*

IV. *The Deliberative Subjunctive*

678. The subjunctive is used in rhetorical questions (§ 620. *b*) of *surprise, perplexity*, or *indignation*, expecting no reply.[1]

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[1] This use of the volitive subjunctive, beginning with questions asked by the speaker in regard to the *will* or *desire* of the person addressed, developed into questions no longer *volitive* but *deliberative*, in which the speaker is in doubt and deliberates on the proper course to pursue. A further step leads to the usual meaning covered by the rule above, where the questions are purely rhetorical or exclamatory. The name *deliberative* is generally given to all these idioms, though applicable to only one of them.

quid faciam, *what do you desire me to do?* [Volitive.]
quid faciam, *what am I to do?* [Deliberative.]
quid faciam, *what shall I do?* [Rhetorical or Exclamatory.]

The present is used of present time, the past of past time. The negative is **nōn**.[1]

quid *agam*? quō mē *vertam*, *what shall I do? whither shall I turn?*
quam ratiōnem pugnae *īnsistam*, *what plan of battle shall I adopt?*
quid *dīcerem*, *what was I to say?*
cūr ego nōn *laeter*, *why should I not rejoice?*

679. The indicative is sometimes used in deliberative questions.

quid *agō*, *what am I to do?*
***dēdēmus* ergō Hannibalem**, *shall we then surrender Hannibal?*

The Optative Subjunctive

680. The optative subjunctive is used to express a wish. The negative is **nē**.

681. I. The present subjunctive (with or without **utinam**) denotes a wish as *possible*.

***sīs* fēlīx**, *may you be happy*
falsus *utinam* vātēs *sim*, *may I be a false prophet*
dī ōmen *āvertant*, *may the gods avert the omen*
nē *vīvam*, sī sciō, *may I not live, if I know*

NOTE. **Utinam**, **utī**, or **ut** (§ 682), introducing a wish, do not appear in the translation.

II. 1. The past subjunctive with **utinam** denotes a wish *unattained* in *present* time.

utinam* Clōdius *vīveret, *would that Clodius were now alive* (but he is n't)

2. The past perfect subjunctive with **utinam** denotes a wish *unattained* in *past* time.

utinam* omnīs *ēdūxisset, *would that he had led them all out* (but he did n't)
utinam* nē *mortuus esset, *would that he had not died*

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[1] The use of **nōn** instead of **nē**, the regular negative with the volitive, may be due to the fact that most of these questions have lost their volitive character.

682. **Utī** or **ut** is sometimes used instead of **utinam** in poetry and in early Latin.

> ***ut pereat*** **rōbīgine tēlum** (Horace), *may the weapon perish with rust*

683. In poetry **sī** or **ō sī** with the subjunctive sometimes expresses a wish.

> ***ō sī*** **angulus ille** ***accēdat*** (Horace), *O if that corner might only be added*

The Potential Subjunctive

684. The potential subjunctive[1] represents an act or state as *possible* or *conceivable*. The negative is **nōn**.

NOTE. There is no single English equivalent for this subjunctive; it must be rendered, according to circumstances, by the auxiliaries *would*, *should*, *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*.

685. The present and perfect of the potential subjunctive denote an existing possibility, the past[2] denotes a past possibility no longer existing.

> **nēmō** ***dīcat*** or ***dīxerit***, *no one would say*
> **dīcerēs**, *you would have said*

NOTE. Rarely the past perfect is used, instead of the past, to refer to what *might have* been but is not.

686. The potential subjunctive has three uses:

a. The potential subjunctive is used in the first person singular, present or perfect, of verbs of *saying*, *wishing*, or *thinking* to make a softened or cautious assertion.

> **pāce tuā** ***dīxerim***, *I would say by your leave*
> ***velim*** **ita putāre**, *I should like to think so*
> ***nōlim*** **eum laudāre**, *I should be unwilling to praise him*
> **ego** ***cēnseam***, *I should think*

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[1] Also called the subjunctive of contingent futurity.

[2] Compare the use of the past subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact (§ 786).

b. The potential subjunctive is used in the indefinite second person singular, present or more frequently past, of verbs of *saying*, *believing*, *seeing*, and the like.

> **reōs *dīcerēs***, *you would have said they were culprits*
> ***crēderēs* victōs**, *you would have believed them conquered*
> ***vidērēs* susurrōs**, *you might have seen them whispering* (lit. *whispers*)

c. The potential subjunctive is used in any tense, person, or number to express something as possible or conceivable. The subject is often an indefinite pronoun.

> **aliquis *dīcat***, *some one may say*
> **nīl ego *contulerim* amīcō**, *I should compare nothing to a friend*
> **quid *dīxisset***, *what would he have said?*
> **quis *temperet* ā lacrimīs**, *who could refrain from tears?*

687. The potential subjunctive may be regarded as the conclusion of a conditional sentence with the condition understood. See § 774.

688. The indicative is used in certain expressions when the potential subjunctive might have been expected. See § 643.

THE IMPERATIVE MOOD

689. The imperative is the mood of *command* or *request*. The negative is **nē**.

690. The tenses of the imperative are two in number, the present and the future.

a. The present imperative demands immediate action.

> ***dēsilīte*, commīlitōnēs**, *leap down, comrades*
> ***mūtā* istam mentem**, *change that purpose of yours*
> ***ēgredere* ex urbe**, *depart from the city*

NOTE. The present with **nē** to express prohibitions is found only in early Latin and in poetry. For the regular expression of prohibitions see § 676.

b. The future imperative is used in commands demanding future action and in laws and precepts.

> **crās *petitō***, *ask to-morrow*
> **Phyllida mitte, posteā ipse *venītō***, *send Phyllis, afterwards come yourself*
> **praetor custōs *estō***, *the prætor shall be the guardian*
> **boreā flante, nē *arātō***, *when the north wind blows, don't plow*

691. The verbs **sciō**, **meminī**, and **habeō** (in the sense of *consider*) are used in the future imperative instead of in the present.

> ***mementō* Horātī Flaccī**, *be mindful of Horatius Flaccus*
> **sīc *habētō*, mī Tīrō**, *so consider it, my good Tiro*

For the future indicative used as imperative see § 656.

MOODS AND TENSES IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

692. Tenses are divided into two classes, — primary and secondary. Primary tenses denote present or future time. Secondary tenses denote past time.

- I. Primary tenses
  - Present
  - Future
  - Present Perfect
  - Future Perfect
- II. Secondary tenses
  - Past Descriptive (Imperfect)
  - Past Absolute (Historical Perfect)
  - Past Perfect (Pluperfect)

693. In the subjunctive the present and perfect tenses are primary, the past and past perfect are secondary.

694. The tense class of a subjunctive in a dependent clause is determined by the tense class of the verb in the principal clause. This relationship is called *sequence of tenses*.

695. The following is the general rule for the *sequence of tenses*:

When the principal verb is primary, a dependent subjunctive will be present or perfect; when the principal verb is secondary, a dependent subjunctive will be past or past perfect.

REGULAR SEQUENCE OF TENSES

696. In dependent clauses the tenses of the subjunctive represent the action as *taking place*, as *going to take place*, or as *having taken place* at the time denoted by the principal verb.

The kind of action denoted by the tenses of the verb in the dependent clause, and the sequence of tenses, are shown in the following table:

	PRINCIPAL VERB	DEPENDENT SUBJUNCTIVE		
		Action going on	Future Action	Past Action
PRIMARY	Present Future Present Perfect Future Perfect	Present (After any primary tense)	Present or Perfect (After any primary tense)	Perfect (After any primary tense)
SECONDARY	Past Descriptive Past Absolute Past Perfect	Past (After any secondary tense)	Past or Past Perfect (After any secondary tense)	Past Perfect (After any secondary tense)

697. Sequence of tenses is illustrated in the table on the next page.

698. In applying the rules for the use and sequence of the tenses of the subjunctive, observe especially the following points:

a. The future is supplied by the present subjunctive after primary tenses and by the past subjunctive after secondary tenses.

exspectant quid Caesar *faciat*, *they wait to see what Cæsar will do*
exspectābant quid Caesar *faceret*, *they waited to see what Cæsar would do*

EXAMPLES OF SEQUENCE OF TENSES

	Principal Verb	Dependent Subjunctive		
		Action going on	Future Action	Past Action
Primary	**rogō**, *I ask* **rogābō**, *I shall ask* **rogāvī**, *I have asked* **rogāverō**, *I shall have asked*	**quid faciās**, *what you are doing*	**quid faciās** or **quid factūrus sīs**, *what you will do* **quid fēcerī̆s**, *what you will have done*	**quid fēcerī̆s**, *what you have done, did*, or *were doing*
Secondary	**rogābam**, *I asked* or *was asking* **rogāvī**, *I asked* **rogāveram**, *I had asked*	**quid facerēs**, *what you were doing*	**quid facerēs** or **quid factūrus essēs**, *what you would do* **quid fēcissēs**, *what you would have done*	**quid fēcissēs**, *what you had done*

b. The future perfect is supplied by the perfect subjunctive after primary tenses and by the past perfect subjunctive after secondary tenses.

> **dēmōnstrat, sī *vēnerint*, multōs interitūrōs**, *he shows that if they come (shall have come), many will perish*
>
> **dēmōnstrāvit, sī *vēnissent*, multōs interitūrōs**, *he showed that if they should come (should have come), many would perish*

c. When a clearer reference to future time is necessary, the active periphrastic forms in **-ūrus sim** and **-ūrus essem** are employed.

> **exspectant quid Caesar *factūrus sit***, *they wait to see what Cæsar will do*
>
> **exspectābant quid Caesar *factūrus esset***, *they waited to see what Cæsar would do*

NOTE. This is the usual form of expression in future indirect questions (§ 815).

d. After a primary tense the perfect subjunctive is used to denote any past action.

> **nōn dubitō quīn omnēs *scrīpserint***, *I do not doubt that all* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{have written}\\ \textit{wrote}\\ \textit{were writing}\end{array}\right.$

PECULIARITIES IN THE SEQUENCE OF TENSES

699. The present perfect is ordinarily treated as a secondary tense and is followed by a secondary tense of the subjunctive.

> **ut satis *esset* praesidī prōvīsum est**, *provision has been made that there should be ample guard*

a. When present time is clearly in mind, the present perfect is followed by a primary tense.

> **ita didicimus ut magis virtūte quam īnsidiīs *contendāmus***, *we have been so trained that we fight more by valor than by stratagems*

700. The historical present (§ 648) takes either the primary or the secondary sequence.

> **rogat ut haec** $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textbf{\textit{cūret}}\\ \textbf{\textit{cūrāret}}\end{array}\right\}$ *he* $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\textit{asks}\\ \textit{asked}\end{array}\right\}$ *him to attend to these matters*

701. A *general truth* after a secondary tense follows the rule for sequence of tenses.

> **quanta cōnscientiae vīs *esset* ostendit,** *he showed how great the strength of conscience is*

702. In clauses of result the perfect subjunctive is very often (the present rarely) used after a secondary tense.

> **ita nōn timidus fuit ut fortiter *pugnāverit*,** *he was so fearless that he fought bravely*
>
> **Hortēnsius ārdēbat tantā cupiditāte dīcendī ut in nūllō umquam flagrantius studium *vīderim*,** *Hortensius burned with so great a desire for speaking that I have never seen a more burning ardor in any man*

a. Occasionally the same irregular use of the perfect subjunctive appears in other clauses.

> **cum multās hōrās *pugnātum sit*, āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit,** *though the conflict raged for many hours, no one could see an enemy in retreat*

703. A dependent perfect infinitive is usually followed by a secondary tense, even when the principal verb on which the infinitive depends is in a primary tense.

> **satis mihi multa verba fēcisse videor quā rē hoc bellum *esset* necessārium,** *I seem to have made it sufficiently clear why this war is necessary*

704. The past and past perfect subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact (§§ 786, 793) are not affected by the sequence of tenses.

> **nōn dubitō quīn ad mē *venīrēs*, sī *possēs*,** *I do not doubt that you would come to me if you could*

705. When a subjunctive depends on a subjunctive, the sequence is as follows:

a. The present subjunctive is regularly followed by primary tenses.

b. The past, perfect, and past perfect subjunctive are followed by secondary tenses.

nesciō quid causae sit cūr nūllās ad mē litterās *dēs* (*dederīs*, *datūrus sīs*), *I do not know what the reason is why you send (have sent, will send) me no letter*

nesciō quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mē litterās *darēs* (*dedissēs*, *datūrus essēs*), *I do not know what the reason was why you sent (had sent, would send) me no letter*

nesciēbam quid causae $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textbf{esset}\\ \textbf{fuisset}\end{matrix}\right\}$ **cūr nūllās ad mē litterās *darēs* (*dedissēs*, *datūrus essēs*),** *I did not know what the reason* $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{was}\\ \textit{had been}\end{matrix}\right\}$ *why you sent (had sent, would send) me no letter*

706. When a subjunctive clause depends on a present or future infinitive, a supine, gerund, or participle, its tense class is regulated by the tense class of the verb in the principal clause.

cōnfīdō mē quod *velim* facile ā tē impetrātūrum esse, *I trust I shall easily obtain from you what I wish*

cōnstitueram venīre ut tē *vidērem*, *I had made up my mind to come to see you*

mīsērunt Delphōs cōnsultum (supine) **quidnam *facerent*,** *they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do*

Note. For the sequence of tenses after the perfect infinitive see § 703.

707. Though the laws of tense sequence are in general closely observed, they are not inflexible, and many irregularities occur. These are often due to a desire for rhetorical effect and sometimes to careless writing.

DEVELOPMENT OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

708. In the early stages of language there were no subordinate clauses, but only coördinate independent sentences. From these subordinate clauses were a gradual development.

For example, **timeō nē veniant** consisted originally of two independent sentences, *I fear. May they not come.* Later, **nē veniant** was felt as a subordinate clause, and thus was developed the complex sentence *I fear that they will come* (lit. *lest they may come*).

KINDS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

709. From independent sentences with the indicative or subjunctive were developed three kinds of subordinate clauses:

I. Adverbial clauses, expressing various adverbial relationships and introduced by conjunctive adverbs.

> **veniō** ***ut Caesarem laudem***, *I come to praise Cæsar*

II. Adjective clauses, used to qualify some noun or pronoun and introduced by the relative **quī** or by a relative adverb.

> **lēgātum mittit** ***quī haec cūret***, *he sends his lieutenant to see to these matters*

NOTE. These are usually called relative clauses.

III. Substantive, or noun, clauses, used as subject, object, predicate noun, or appositive.

> **accidit** ***ut Gallī cōnsilium mūtārent***, *it happened that the Gauls changed their plan.* [Substantive clause used as subject.]

THE INDICATIVE OR SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

710. Both the indicative and the subjunctive are used in subordinate clauses. The uses of the subjunctive are all developed from the three meanings (volitive, optative, and potential) that this mood has in principal clauses (§ 670).

711. The indicative or subjunctive is used in subordinate clauses to express —

1. Purpose (subjunctive; § 712).
2. Description or characteristic (subjunctive; § 726).
3. Consequence or result (subjunctive; § 731).
4. Time (indicative or subjunctive; § 743).
5. Cause (indicative or subjunctive; § 767).
6. Condition (indicative or subjunctive; § 772).
7. Comparison (subjunctive; § 803).

8. Concession (indicative or subjunctive; § 805).
9. Proviso (subjunctive; § 811).
10. Indirect questions (subjunctive; § 812).
11. Facts introduced by **quod** (indicative; § 821).
12. Indirect discourse (subjunctive; § 886).

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF PURPOSE

712. The subjunctive is used in adverbial, relative, and substantive clauses to express purpose.

I. *Adverbial Clauses of Purpose*

713. An adverbial clause denoting purpose takes the subjunctive, and is introduced by **ut** or **utī**, *that, in order that,* or **nē**, *that not, in order that not, lest.*

> **Caesar equōs remōvit *ut* spem fugae *tolleret*,** *Cæsar removed the horses that he might take away the hope of flight*
>
> **ibi tormenta conlocāvit *nē* hostēs suōs circumvenīre *possent*,** *there he placed his engines of war that the enemy might not be able to surround his men*
>
> ***nē* graviōrī bellō *occurreret*, ad exercitum proficīscitur,** *he set out for the army that he might not meet with too serious a war*
>
> **nōn nūllī, *ut* timōris suspīciōnem *vītārent*, remanēbant,** *some remained (in order) to avoid the suspicion of fear*

NOTE. Purpose clauses are often called final clauses. The subjunctive of purpose is volitive (§ 671) in origin.

a. **Ut nōn** may be used for **nē** when the negative applies to a single word or phrase and not to the whole clause.

> ***ut nōn* ēiectus sed invītātus īsse videāris,** *that you may seem to have gone not expelled but invited*

b. **Ut nē** is stronger than **nē** alone.

> **exstitī *ut nē* omnīnō dēsertus esset,** *I appeared that he might not be entirely deserted*

c. *And that not, and lest, or that not* are regularly expressed by **nēve** or **neu.**

> **id fēcit nē poenās daret *nēve* quid dētrīmentī acciperet,** *he did this that he might not receive punishment and that he might not suffer any harm*
>
> **nūntiōs mīsit nē Helvētiōs frūmentō *nēve* aliā rē iuvārent,** *he sent messengers that they might not assist the Helvetii with grain or anything else*
>
> **aliae sublicae suprā pontem agēbantur ut eārum rērum vīs minuerētur *neu* pontī nocērent,** *other piles were driven above the bridge that the violence of those things might be diminished or that they might not injure the bridge*

714. Subjunctive clauses with **ut** or **nē** are sometimes inserted parenthetically.

> **ac *nē* longum *sit,* tabellās prōferrī iussimus,** *and, not to be tedious, we ordered the tablets to be produced*
>
> **optima vītae, *ut* ita *dīcam,* supellex,** *the best furniture, so to speak, of life*

NOTE. The subjunctive may be regarded as depending on some unexpressed verb: as, (I speak thus) *in order not to be tedious.*

II. *Relative Clauses of Purpose*

715. A relative clause denoting purpose takes the subjunctive.

> **Helvētiī lēgātōs mittunt *quī dīcerent,*** *the Helvetii sent ambassadors to say* (lit. *who should say*)
>
> **sarmenta colligunt *quibus* fossās *expleant,*** *they gather fagots with which to fill the ditches*
>
> **scrībēbat ōrātiōnēs *quās* aliī *dīcerent,*** *he wrote speeches for others to deliver*
>
> **diēs dicta est *quā* omnēs *convenīrent,*** *a day was appointed on which all should assemble*

NOTE. In this construction **quī** is equivalent to **ut is, ut ego,** etc.; and the subjunctive, as in **ut** clauses of purpose, is volitive (§ 671) in origin.

716. A relative clause of purpose is often introduced by the relative adverbs **ubi** (= **ut ibi**), *where*; **unde** (= **ut inde**), *whence*; **quō** (= **ut eō**), *whither*; etc.

domum ***ubi habitāret*** **lēgit**, *he chose a house where he might dwell* (equivalent to *in order that he might dwell there*)

habēbam ***quō cōnfugerem***, *I had a place to flee to* (lit. *whither I might flee*; equivalent to *in order that I might flee thither*)

717. The adjectives **dignus**, **indignus**, and **idōneus** are followed by a relative clause of purpose.

hunc Caesar ***idōneum*** **iūdicāvit** ***quem mitteret***, *Cæsar judged him a suitable person to send* (lit. *whom he might send*)

hī librī sunt ***dignī quī legantur***, *these books are worth reading* (lit. *worthy which should be read*)

718. The ablative **quō** is used as a conjunction in purpose clauses which contain a comparative.

manipulōs laxāre iussit ***quō facilius*** **gladiīs ūtī** ***possent***, *he gave orders to open the ranks that they might be able to use their swords more easily*

castella commūnit ***quō facilius*** **hostīs prohibēre** ***posset***, *he fortified the redoubts that he might the more easily be able to ward off the enemy*

NOTE 1. In this construction **quō** is really an ablative of the measure of difference (§ 475).

NOTE 2. **Quō** rarely introduces a purpose clause containing no comparative.

Sulla exercitum, ***quō*** **sibi fīdum** ***faceret***, **lūxuriōsē habuerat**, *Sulla had treated the army luxuriously, in order to make it devoted to him*

NOTE 3. For **quō minus** (= **ut eō minus**) after verbs of hindering see § 720. III.

III. *Substantive Clauses of Purpose*

719. Substantive clauses developed from the volitive or optative subjunctive are generally designated as substantive clauses of purpose, and are conveniently classified together under this name. But in many cases no idea of purpose is perceptible and the mood is due to some original volitive or optative use which may never have denoted purpose at all.

NOTE. Compare substantive clauses of result (§ 736).

720. Object Clauses of Purpose. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs denoting an action *directed toward the future*. Thus:

I. Object clauses with the subjunctive, introduced by **ut** or **nē**, are used after verbs meaning to *advise*, *ask*, *command*, *decide*, *permit*, *persuade*, *strive*, *urge*, *wish*, and the like.

monet *ut* omnēs suspīciōnēs *vītet*, *he advises him to avoid all suspicion*
tē rogō atque ōrō *ut* eum *iuvēs*, *I ask and beseech you to help him*
suīs imperāvit *nē* quod tēlum *reicerent*, *he commanded his men not to throw back any weapon*
persuādet Casticō *ut* rēgnum *occupāret*, *he persuaded Casticus to seize the royal power*
hortātur eōs *nē dēficiant*, *he urges them not to fail*

a. **Iubeō**, *order*, and **vetō**, *forbid*, regularly take the infinitive with subject accusative.

***līberōs* ad sē *addūcī* iussit**, *he ordered the children to be brought to him*
***lēgātōs discēdere* vetuerat**, *he had forbidden the lieutenants to go away*

b. **Volō** (**nōlō**, **mālō**) and **cupiō** generally take the infinitive; so also other verbs of wishing when the subject remains the same.

rēx *fierī* voluī, *I wished to become king*
cupiō mē *esse* clēmentem or **cupiō *esse* clēmēns**, *I desire to be merciful*
cupiō *ut impetret*, *I wish he may get it.* [The subject changes.]

c. **Cōnor**, *try*, and **patior**, *permit*, regularly take the infinitive.

flūmen *trānsīre* cōnantur, *they try to cross the river*
per suōs fīnīs eōs *īre* patiuntur, *they allow them to pass through their territory*

d. Many of these verbs take either the subjunctive or the infinitive; and some, retaining an earlier form of expression, may take the subjunctive without **ut**.

Caesar statuit *proficīscī*, *Cæsar decided to set out.* [Note the infinitive.]
statuunt *ut* decem mīlia hominum *mittant*, *they decide to send ten thousand men.* [Note the subjunctive.]
rogat fīnem *faciat*, *he asks him to cease*

II. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *fearing* — **metuō, timeō, vereor,** etc. The object clause is introduced by **nē**, translated by *that*, and **nē nōn** or **ut**, translated by *that not*.[1]

timeō *nē* Verrēs hoc *fēcerit*, *I fear that Verres has done this*
vereor *nē nōn veniat*, *I fear that he is not coming*
vereor *ut possim*, *I fear that I cannot*

NOTE. When the verb of fearing is negatived, **nē nōn** is preferred to **ut**.

nōn vereor *nē* tua virtūs opīniōnī hominum *nōn* respondeat, *I do not fear that your worth will not equal popular expectation*

a. Verbs of *fearing* are often followed by the complementary infinitive, as in English.

vereor tē *laudāre*, *I fear to praise you*

III. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *hindering, opposing, refusing* — **dēterreō, prohibeō, impediō, retineō, recūsō,** etc. The object clause is introduced by **nē, quīn,** or **quōminus (quō minus)**. **Nē** or **quōminus** is used when the main clause is affirmative, **quīn** or **quōminus** when it is negative or implies a negative.

prohibent *nē fīat*, *they prevent it from being done*
dēterret *nē* maior multitūdō *trādūcātur*, *he prevents a larger number from being brought over*
nihil impedit *quōminus* id *faciāmus*, *nothing hinders us from doing that*
Germānī retinērī nōn poterant *quīn* tēla *conicerent*, *the Germans could not be restrained from hurling their weapons*
neque recūsant *quīn* armīs *contendant*, *nor do they refuse to fight*

a. Some of these verbs may take the infinitive.

nostrōs *ingredī* prohibēbant, *they prevented our men from entering*

---

[1] Originally **timeō; nē accidat** meant *I fear; may it not happen* (§ 680). When the sentence becomes complex (§ 300), the English equivalent is *I fear that it will happen*. The origin of the **ut** clause after verbs of fearing is similar, **vereor; ut accidat** meaning originally *I fear; may it happen* (**ut** introducing a wish and not appearing in the translation, cf. § 682); then, *I fear that it will not happen*. The translation of **ut** by *that not* and of **nē** by *that* is therefore due only to the demands of the English idiom and not to any real change in the value of the Latin words themselves.

IV. Object clauses with the subjunctive are used after verbs of *doubt* or *ignorance* that are negatived or imply a negative — **nōn dubitō, quis dubitat, quis ignōrat,** etc. The object clause is introduced by **quīn.**

nōn dubitat ***quīn*** **Trōia** ***peritūra sit***, *he does not doubt that Troy will fall*

nōn dubitō ***quīn*** **supplicium** ***sūmat***, *I do not doubt that he will inflict punishment*

quis ignōrat ***quīn*** **tria genera** ***sint***, *who is ignorant that there are three kinds?*

a. Similarly negatived *expressions* of doubt — **nōn est dubium,** *there is no doubt*; **nōn abest suspīciō,** *suspicion is not wanting*; etc. — are followed by **quīn** and the subjunctive.

nōn erat dubium ***quīn*** **Helvētiī plūrimum** ***possent***, *there was no doubt that the Helvetii were the most powerful*

neque abest suspīciō ***quīn*** **ipse sibi mortem** ***cōnscīverit***, *nor is the suspicion wanting that he committed suicide*

NOTE. **Dubitō,** *doubt*, without a negative, is generally followed by an indirect question (§ 813); and in the sense of *hesitate*, regularly by the infinitive (§ 837), but sometimes by **quīn** and the subjunctive.

721. Subject Clauses of Purpose. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used after the passive of verbs that in the active take object clauses (see § 720).

persuādētur Casticō ***ut*** **rēgnum** ***occupāret***, *Casticus is persuaded to seize the royal power* (lit. *it is persuaded to Casticus that he seize* etc.)

erat eī praeceptum ***nē*** **proelium** ***committeret***, *it had been enjoined upon him that he should not engage in battle*

722. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used with **licet, oportet,** and **necesse est,** usually without **ut.**

licet *querāmur*, *it is allowed us to complain*

sint enim oportet, *for they must exist*

723. Subject clauses of purpose with the subjunctive are used with impersonal expressions like **reliquum est, sequitur, opus est, lēx est, mōs est**, etc., when the dependent clause does not state *a fact already existing*, but looks forward to *something yet to come.*

> **reliquum est** ***ut dīcam***, *it remains for me to say*
> **est lēx amīcitiae** ***ut*** **idem amīcī** ***velint***, *it is a law of friendship that friends should have the same wish*

NOTE. Compare subject clauses of result, which state a fact (§§ 738, 739).

724. Clauses of Purpose as Appositives. Subjunctive clauses, introduced by **ut** or **nē**, may be used as appositives to nouns or pronouns.

> **in hoc ūnum vīvō,** ***ut*** **patriae** ***prōsim***, *I am living for this one thing, that I may be of service to my country*
> **id agunt,** ***ut*** **omnēs** ***videant***, *they strive for this, that all may see*
> **haec erat lēx,** ***ut*** **omnēs** ***interficerentur***, *this was the law, that all should be killed*

725. Developed from the volitive subjunctive in its deliberative use are substantive clauses following such expressions as **nūlla causa est cūr** (**quā rē, quīn**), **nōn est cūr**, etc.

> **nūlla causa est** ***cūr eam***, *there is no reason why I should go* (originally *why should I go? There is no reason*)

For other ways of expressing purpose, and for a summary of them all, see § 882. I, footnote.

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF DESCRIPTION OR CHARACTERISTIC

726. A relative clause that describes an antecedent by telling *what kind* of person or thing it is, is called a clause of *description* or *characteristic* and takes the subjunctive.[1]

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[1] This construction has its origin in the potential subjunctive (§ 684), the idea of *possibility* easily passing over into that of *quality* or *characteristic* (compare *there is no one who would be able* with *there is no one who is able*). It is especially common when the antecedent is otherwise undefined or general,

nihil videō *quod timeam*, *I see nothing to fear* (lit. *which I fear*)
multa dīcunt *quae* vix *intellegam*, *they say many things which* (such as) *I hardly understand*
erat nūllum oppidum *quod* sē *dēfenderet*, *there was no town which defended itself* (stated not as a fact but as a characteristic)
erant omnīnō itinera duo *quibus* itineribus domō exīre *possent*, *there were in all two ways by which they could go forth from home*
nihil habēbam *quod scrīberem*, *I had nothing to write*

727. Relative clauses of description or characteristic are used especially after general expressions of existence or non-existence :

sunt quī, *there are some who*
nēmō or **nūllus est quī,** *there is no one who*
nihil est quod, *there is nothing which*
quis est quī, *who is there who*
is quī, *the one who*
ūnus or **sōlus quī,** *the only one who*

sunt *quī putent*, *there are some who think*
domī nihil erat *quō* famem *tolerārent*, *there was nothing at home by which to sustain hunger*
quis est *quī* eum nōn *laudet*, *who is there that does not praise him?*
nōn is sum *quī* hoc *faciat*, *I am not the man to do this*

NOTE. After expressions like **multī** (**nōn nūllī, quīdam**) **sunt quī,** where the antecedent is partially defined, the choice of mood depends on the shade of meaning.

728. After **nēmō, nūllus, nihil,** or **quis** the clause of description or characteristic may be introduced by **quīn** instead of **quī** (**quae, quod**) **nōn.**

nēmō est *quīn sciat*, *there is no one who does not know*
quis est *quīn intellegat*, *who is there who does not understand?*

and is to be distinguished from the relative clause with the indicative, which *states a fact* about the antecedent and does not describe it: thus, **nūlla est nātiō quam *pertimēscimus*** (indicative) means *there is no nation which* (as a fact) *we fear*; whereas **nūlla est nātiō quam *pertimēscāmus*** (subjunctive) means *there is no nation which is of such a character that we fear it.*

729. Included under relative clauses of description or characteristic are restrictive clauses like **quod sciam**, *so far as I know*; **quod invēnerim**, *so far as I have discovered*; etc.

> **nōn ego tē, *quod sciam*, umquam ante hunc diem vīdī,** *so far as I know, I have never seen you before this day*

730. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *cause* or *concession*.

I. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *cause*, the relative — equivalent to **cum is**, *since he* — being often accompanied by **ut, utpote,** or **quippe.**

> **incūsant Belgās *quī* sē *dēdiderint*,** *they blame the Belgæ who have* (= because they have) *surrendered*
>
> **Caesar iniūriam facit *quī* vectīgālia dēteriōra *faciat*,** *Cæsar is doing an injustice since he is making the revenues less*
>
> **cōnsul, *ut quī* id ipsum *quaesīsset*, moram nōn fēcit,** *the consul, since he had sought that very thing, did not delay*

II. The relative clause of description or characteristic may express *concession*, the relative being equivalent to **cum is**, *though he*, and the clause expressing something in spite of which the main statement is true.

> **Cicerō, *quī* omnēs superiōrēs diēs mīlitēs in castrīs *continuisset*, septimō diē quīnque cohortēs frūmentātum mittit,** *Cicero, though he had kept his soldiers in camp on all the preceding days, on the seventh day sent five cohorts to gather grain*

NOTE. The relative clause sometimes amounts to a proviso (§ 811).

> **nihil est molestum *quod* nōn *dēsīderēs*,** *nothing is troublesome which you do not miss* (= provided you do not miss it)

SUBJUNCTIVE CLAUSES OF CONSEQUENCE OR RESULT

731. The subjunctive is used in adverbial, relative, and substantive clauses to express consequence or result.[1]

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[1] The use of the subjunctive to express result is a development of its use in clauses of description (§ 726), the quality which *would* lead to some action readily passing over into a real action resulting from a quality. This step leads to clauses of pure result with no idea of description.

I. *Adverbial Clauses of Result*

732. An adverbial clause denoting consequence or result takes the subjunctive, introduced by **ut** or **utī**, *so that*. The negative is **nōn**.

The main clause often contains **tālis**, **tantus**, **tot**, **is** (= **tālis**), **ita**, **adeō**, **tam**, or some other word of quality or degree.

> **mōns impendēbat *ut* facile perpaucī prohibēre *possent***, *a mountain towered above, so that a very few could easily keep* (them) *back*
>
> **eius modī sunt tempestātēs cōnsecūtae *utī* opus *intermitterētur***, *storms of such a character followed that the work was interrupted*
>
> **flūmen incrēdibilī lēnitāte fluit ita *ut* oculīs, in utram partem fluat, iūdicārī *nōn possit***, *the river flows with incredible slowness, so that it cannot be determined by the eyes in which direction it flows*
>
> **tanta vīs probitātis est *ut* eam in hoste *dīligāmus***, *so great is the power of goodness that we love it even in an enemy*

NOTE. It is to be observed that the constructions of purpose and result in Latin are precisely alike in the *affirmative*, but that *negative* purpose has **nē**, *negative* result **ut nōn**.

a. Instead of **nē quis**, **nē quid**, **nē ūllus**, etc., used to introduce negative purpose clauses, negative result clauses have **ut nēmō**, **ut nihil**, **ut nūllus**, etc.

> **sē occultābant *nē quis* eōs cernere *posset***, *they concealed themselves that no one might be able to see them* (purpose)
>
> **sē occultābant *ut nēmō* eōs cernere *posset***, *they concealed themselves so that no one could see them* (result)

733. A clause of result or characteristic with **quam ut**, **quam quī**, rarely with **quam** alone, may be used after a comparative.

> **haec signa rigidiōra sunt *quam*** $\left\{\begin{matrix}\textit{ut}\\ \textit{quae}\end{matrix}\right\}$ ***imitentur* vēritātem**, *these statues are too stiff to* (*stiffer than that they should*) *represent nature*
>
> **senior erat *quam ut pugnāret***, *he was too old to fight*

734. A clause of result is sometimes used in a *restrictive* sense and so amounts to a proviso (§ 811).

> **vōbīs ita concēdunt *ut* vōbīscum *certent***, *they yield to you only to the extent that they vie with you*

II. *Relative Clauses of Result*

735. Relative clauses of result, introduced by **quī**, **quīn** (equivalent to **quī nōn**), or a relative adverb (**ubi, unde, quō**, etc.), are developed from the relative clause of description or characteristic (§ 726), and, as a rule, cannot be distinguished from it.

nūlla est celeritās *quae possit* cum animī celeritāte contendere, *there is no swiftness that can compare with the swiftness of the mind*
nēmō erat adeō tardus *quīn putāret*, *no one was so slothful as not to* (= who did not) *think*
nōn habet *unde* tē *solvat*, *he has no resources from which* (lit. *has not whence*) *to pay you*

NOTE. Here belong such expressions as **facere nōn possum quīn, fierī nōn potest quīn**, with the subjunctive.

facere nōn possum } **quīn dīcam**, *I cannot but speak* (lit. *I am not able to act so that I do not*, or *it cannot happen that I do not*)
fierī nōn potest }

III. *Substantive Clauses of Result*

736. Substantive clauses developed from the potential subjunctive are generally called substantive clauses of result; but the idea of result is often weak or lacking altogether, and the subjunctive is translated like an indicative stating a fact. They are introduced by **ut** or **ut nōn**.

NOTE. Compare substantive clauses of purpose (§ 719).

737. Object Clauses of Result. Substantive clauses of result are used as the object of verbs of *bringing about* and *accomplishing* (**faciō, efficiō, perficiō**, etc.) when the dependent clause states a fact.

efficiam *ut intellegātis*, *I will make you understand* (lit. *that you understand*)
efficiēbat *ut* commeātūs portārī *possent*, *he made it possible for supplies to be brought*
obsidēs *utī* inter sē *dent* perficit, *he brings it about that they give hostages to each other*

738. Subject Clauses of Result. Substantive clauses of result stating a fact are used as the subject of passive verbs denoting *bringing about* and *accomplishing*.

> **factum est *ut* Germānī mercēde *arcesserentur*,** *it was brought about that the Germans were invited for pay*

739. Substantive clauses of result stating a fact are used as subject with impersonals like **fit, accidit, ēvenit,** *it happens*; **relinquitur, restat, reliquum est,** *it remains*; **accēdit,** *it is added*; **est,** *it is a fact*; **sequitur, efficitur,** *it follows*.

> **accidit *ut esset* lūna plēna,** *it happened that there was a full moon*
> **reliquum est *ut* mihi ipsī *cōnsulam*,** *the fact remains that I consult for myself*
> **ad senectūtem accēdēbat *ut* caecus *esset*,** *to his old age was added the fact that he was blind*

740. Fore (or **futūrum esse**) **ut** with a clause of result as subject is regularly used for the future passive infinitive, and for the future active infinitive when this is lacking.

> **videō *fore ut* hostēs *vincantur*,** *I see that the enemy will be conquered*
> **spērō *fore ut contingat*,** *I hope that it will happen*

741. Clauses of Result as Appositives or Predicate Nouns. A substantive clause of result stating a fact may be in apposition with a noun or neuter pronoun, or may serve as a predicate noun after **mōs est, iūs est,** and similar expressions.

> **hanc grātiam refert, *ut gravētur*,** *he makes this return, that he objects*
> **id est proprium cīvitātis, *ut sit* lībera,** *this is characteristic of a state, that it is free*
> **ea est vīs probitātis, *ut* eam vel in hoste *dīligāmus*,** *such is the power of integrity that we love it even in an enemy*
> **est mōs hominum *ut nōlint* eundem plūribus rēbus excellere,** *it is the way of men that they do not wish the same person to excel in several respects*

Temporal Clauses

742. Temporal clauses are adverbial and express time.

743. Temporal clauses may be classified as follows:

I. Clauses with **postquam**, **ubi**, **ut**, etc., with the indicative (§§ 745 ff.).

II. Clauses with **cum**, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 749 ff.).

III. Clauses with **antequam** and **priusquam**, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 757 ff.).

IV. Clauses with **dum**, **dōnec**, **quoad**, and **quam diū**, with the indicative or subjunctive (§§ 762 ff.).

Observe that only with the first of these varieties is the indicative always used.

744. In general, expressions of *pure time* are in the indicative. The subjunctive is used when the time relation is modified by some other notion, as *description*, *cause*, *concession*, *doubt*, *purpose*, and the like.

I. Temporal Clauses with *postquam*, *ubi*, *ut*, etc.

745. Clauses introduced by **postquam** (**posteāquam**), *after*; **ubi**, **ut**, *when*; **cum prīmum**, **simul atque** (**simul ac**, or **simul** alone), *as soon as*, take the indicative, — usually in the perfect or the historical present.

> ***postquam*** **id animum** ***advertit***, **cōpiās suās Caesar subdūcit**, *after Cæsar noticed this, he withdrew his forces*
>
> **Caesar,** ***ubi*** **suōs urgērī** ***vīdit***, **prōcessit**, *when Cæsar saw that his men were hard pressed, he advanced*
>
> **Catilīna,** ***ubi*** **eōs convēnisse** ***videt***, **sēcēdit**, *when Catiline sees that they have come together, he retires*
>
> ***simul atque intrōductus est***, **rem cōnfēcit**, *as soon as he was brought in, he finished the matter*

746. **Ut** and **ubi** (sometimes compounded with **-cumque**) in the sense of *whenever* take the perfect indicative after a primary tense and the past perfect after a secondary tense (cf. § 800. *a*).

ut **quisque *vēnit,* accēdō,** *whenever any one comes* (*has come*), *I go to him*

etiam senex, *ubi* occāsiō *data erat,* discēbat, *even in old age he learned whenever opportunity was given*

747. To denote *a definite interval of time after*, **postquam** regularly takes the past perfect indicative. When thus used, **post** is usually separated from **quam** and placed in the main clause as a preposition or adverb, or is sometimes omitted altogether.

pugnātum est *post* paucōs diēs (or **paucīs *post* diēbus**) ***quam pervēnerat***, *the battle was fought a few days after he arrived*

tertiō annō *quam* Aristīdēs *mortuus erat*, *three years after Aristides died*

748. Postquam, ubi, ut, etc. are used with the past descriptive indicative to denote a *continued state* in past time.

***ubi* nēmō obvius *ībat,* ad castra hostium tendunt,** *when no one came to meet them, they hastened to the camp of the enemy*

II. Temporal Clauses with *cum*

749. *Cum* Clauses with the Indicative. A **cum** clause referring to present or future time takes the indicative.

animus nec *cum adest* nec *cum discēdit* appāret, *the soul is not visible either when it is present or when it departs*

tē vidēre volō, *cum* id satis commodē facere *poterō*, *I wish to see you, when I can do so conveniently*

***cum vēneris,* cognōscēs,** *when you* (*shall have*) *come, you will find out*

Note. Observe that the English present is represented by the Latin future in the second example and by the future perfect in the third. This precision in expressing time is characteristic of Latin. Cf. §§ 657, 663.

a. A **cum** clause with the indicative is used to explain one act as identical with another (*explicative* **cum**).

***cum quiēscunt,* probant,** *when they are silent, they approve*

750. A **cum** clause referring to past time takes the indicative when it dates or defines the time of the main action (*definitive* **cum**).

When thus used, **cum** is often found in the combinations **eō tempore cum**, **eō diē cum**, **nunc cum**, **ōlim cum**, **nūper cum**, **tum cum**, and the like.

pāruit eo tempore *cum* pārēre necesse *erat*, *he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey*

tum *cum* in Asiā rēs magnās permultī *āmīserant*, *at that time when many had lost great fortunes in Asia*, etc.

***cum* Caesar in Galliam *vēnit*, factiōnēs erant duae**, *when Cæsar came into Gaul, there were two factions*

quem ego *cum* ex urbe *pellēbam*, hoc prōvidēbam, *when I was trying to drive him out of the city, I was anticipating this*

Conōn praetor fuit *cum* Athēniēnsēs *dēvictī sunt*, *Conon was commander at the time when the Athenians were defeated*

751. Sometimes an independent sentence introduced by **vix** (*hardly*), **iam** (*already*), **nōndum** (*not yet*), or an adverb of similar value, is followed by a **cum** clause, subordinate in form, but expressing the principal action. In this use (called **cum** *inversum*) **cum** takes the perfect indicative or the historical present.

vix vēneram *cum profectus est*, *hardly had I come when he set out*

vix loquī incēperam *cum* subitō *ingressus est*, *hardly had I begun to speak when suddenly he entered*

vix exercitus prōcesserat *cum* Gallī proelium *committunt*, *hardly had the army advanced when the Gauls joined battle*

752. Cum meaning *whenever* (*iterative* **cum**) takes the same construction as **ubi** in this sense. See §§ 746, 800. *a*.

753. *Cum* Clauses with the Subjunctive. Cum is used with the past or past perfect subjunctive to *describe the circumstances* that accompanied or preceded the action of the main verb (*descriptive* **cum**).[1]

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[1] **Cum** (early form **quom**) is by origin a relative, and has constructions similar to **quī**. In early Latin it took the indicative in all tenses. In classic Latin a distinction is made in the past tenses between **cum** *defining a time* and **cum** *describing a time*. **Cum** *defining a time* takes the indicative (§ 750), like an indicative **quī** clause of *fact*. **Cum** *describing a time* takes the subjunctive, like a **quī** clause of description or characteristic (§ 726). *The* **cum** *clause*

Caesarī *cum* id *nūntiātum esset,* mātūrat proficīscī, *when this had been announced to Cæsar, he hastened to set out*

fuit anteā tempus *cum* Germānōs Gallī virtūte *superārent*, *there was formerly a time when the Gauls surpassed the Germans in valor*

cum essem ōtiōsus domī, accēpī tuās litterās, *when I was at home taking my ease, I received your letter*

cum esset Caesar in citeriōre Galliā, crēbrī ad eum rūmōrēs adferēbantur, *when Cæsar was in hither Gaul, frequent reports were brought to him*

cum ab hīs *quaereret,* sīc reperiēbat, *when he made inquiries from these men, he gained the following information*

cum dē imprōvīsō *vēnisset,* Rēmī lēgātōs mīsērunt, *when he had come unexpectedly, the Remi sent envoys*

754. ***Cum* Causal.** A **cum** clause of description with the subjunctive sometimes denotes *cause.* **Cum** is then usually translated by *since,* and the subjunctive may be in any tense.

id difficile nōn est, *cum* tantum *valeāmus*, *this is not difficult since we are so strong*

Haeduī *cum* sē dēfendere nōn *possent,* lēgātōs mittunt, *since the Hædui could not defend themselves, they sent ambassadors*

quae *cum* ita *sint,* eāmus, *since this is so, let us go*

with the past or past perfect subjunctive is the regular construction in narrative, and has largely displaced the use of cum *with a past tense of the indicative, even where no idea of characteristic is perceptible.*

The difference between these two uses of **cum** is further illustrated by the following examples in English:

1. *Catiline made a conspiracy when Cicero was consul.* Here the *when* clause merely defines and fixes the time when Catiline made his conspiracy (63 B.C.), and the main statement is true independently of Cicero's being consul. Catiline would have made his conspiracy just the same if Cicero had not been consul.

2. *Columbus discovered America when he was seeking a new route to India.* Here the *when* clause does not define or date the time of the discovery of America; it describes the circumstances under which America was discovered, and suggests that but for these circumstances Columbus would not have made the discovery.

The Latin would use the indicative in the first sentence and the subjunctive in the second.

NOTE 1. With this may be compared the **quī** clause of characteristic denoting cause (§ 730. I).

NOTE 2. Following the usage of early Latin, **cum** causal is sometimes found with the indicative in the classical period.

> **grātulor tibi *cum* tantum *valēs*** (Cicero), *I congratulate you since you are so influential*, or, freely, *I congratulate you on your influence*

755. *Cum* Concessive. A **cum** clause of description with the subjunctive may denote *concession*. **Cum** is then translated by *though* or *while*, and the subjunctive may be in any tense.

> ***cum* prīmī *concidissent*, tamen reliquī resistēbant**, *though the foremost had fallen, yet the others kept on resisting*
>
> **Sabīnus castrīs sēsē tenēbat, *cum* Viridovīx cotīdiē pugnandī potestātem *faceret***, *Sabinus remained in camp, though Viridovix daily gave him a chance to fight*

a. When **cum . . . tum** means *both . . . and*, the **cum** clause is in the indicative; but with the meaning *though . . . yet*, the **cum** clause is generally in the subjunctive.

> **cōnsilium tuum *cum* semper *probāvissem*, tum multō magis probāvī lēctīs tuīs proximīs litterīs**, *though I had always esteemed your wisdom, yet I esteemed it much more after reading your last letter*

756. Synopsis of **cum** constructions:

- I. Indicative uses of **cum**
  - 1. In clauses referring to present or future time (§ 749)
  - 2. In clauses referring to past time that define the time of the main action (*definitive* **cum**; § 750)
  - 3. **Cum** *inversum* (§ 751)
  - 4. **Cum** meaning *whenever* (*iterative* **cum**; § 752)
- II. Subjunctive uses of **cum**
  - 1. With the past or past perfect subjunctive in clauses of description or characteristic (*descriptive* **cum**; § 753)
  - 2. **Cum** causal (*since*; § 754)
  - 3. **Cum** concessive (*though* or *while*; § 755)

III. Temporal Clauses with *antequam* and *priusquam*

757. Clauses introduced by **antequam** or **priusquam**, *before*, are relative in character, and, like other relative clauses, take the indicative in expressions of real or assumed fact and the subjunctive to express other relations.

NOTE. **Antequam** and **priusquam** consist of the adverbs **ante** (*before*) and **prius** (*sooner*) combined with the relative conjunction **quam** (*than*). The adverbs often stand in the main clause, being separated from **quam** by other words. **Priusquam** is much oftener used than **antequam.**

758. *Antequam* and *priusquam* with the Indicative. The indicative is used with **antequam** or **priusquam** to express a real or assumed fact.

a. The present or perfect is used in clauses referring to present time.

priusquam lūcet, **adsunt**, *before it is dawn, they are present*

b. The present or future perfect is used in clauses referring to future time.

priusquam **dē cēterīs rēbus** ***respondeō,*** **dē amīcitiā dīcam**, *before I reply in regard to the other matters, I will speak about friendship*
nōn dēfatīgābor ***antequam*** **haec** ***percēperō,*** *I shall not weary before I (shall) have traced out these things*

NOTE. The present subjunctive is sometimes found in uses ***a*** and ***b.***

c. The perfect is used in clauses referring to past time.

rēs ita sē habēbant ***antequam vēnī,*** *things were in that condition before I came*
neque ***prius*** **fugere dēstitērunt** ***quam*** **ad flūmen** ***pervēnērunt,*** *nor did they stop running before they reached the river*

NOTE. This construction is especially common when the main clause is negative, as in the last example above.

759. *Antequam* and *priusquam* with the Subjunctive. The past subjunctive is used with **antequam** or **priusquam** in clauses referring to past time: (*a*) to denote an act that was expected and prepared for by a preceding action expressed in the main clause; (*b*) to denote an act that was expected but prevented by a preceding action expressed in the main clause.

> **Caesar suōs hortābātur *priusquam* proelium *committerent*,** *Cæsar used to address his men before they joined* (*should join*) *battle.* [That is, in expectation of a battle, Cæsar prepared his men by addressing them.]
>
> **Caesar Britanniae lītora explōrāvit *priusquam* trānseundī perīculum *faceret*,** *Cæsar explored the shores of Britain before he made the attempt to cross.* [That is, in expectation of crossing to Britain, Cæsar explored its shores.]
>
> ***priusquam* tēlum abicī *posset*, omnis aciēs terga vertit,** *before a weapon could be thrown, the whole line fled.* [That is, the expected hurling of weapons was prevented by the flight of the enemy.]
>
> ***priusquam* effugere *posset*, interfectus est,** *before he could escape, he was put to death*

NOTE 1. Rarely the past perfect subjunctive is used instead of the past.

NOTE 2. After the historical present (§ 648) the present (rarely the perfect) subjunctive may be used instead of the past.

> **ab eō *prius* mīlitēs nōn discēdunt *quam* in cōnspectum Caesaris *dēdūcātur*,** *the soldiers did not leave him before he was conducted into Cæsar's presence*

NOTE 3. The subjunctive with **antequam** or **priusquam** is often called the *subjunctive of expectation* or *anticipation*.

760. The later writers freely use the past subjunctive with **antequam** and **priusquam** even when no idea of expectation is present.

> ***priusquam peteret* cōnsulātum, īnsānit,** *he was insane before he sought the consulship*

761. Synopsis of constructions with **antequam** and **priusquam**:

antequam and priusquam
- I. Present time — indicative, present or perfect (§ 758. *a*)
- II. Future time — indicative, present or future perfect (§ 758. *b*)
- III. Past time
  - Indicative (perfect) to state an *actual fact* (§ 758. *c*)
  - Subjunctive (past)
    - *a*. To denote action expected and prepared for (§ 759. *a*)
    - *b*. To denote action expected but prevented (§ 759. *b*)

IV. Temporal Clauses with *dum, dōnec, quoad,* and *quam diū*

762. Dum, **dōnec**, **quoad**, and **quam diū**, meaning *as long as*, take the indicative.

> ***dum*** **anima** ***est*****, est spēs**, *as long as there is life, there is hope*
> ***dōnec*** **grātus** ***eram*** **tibi, rēge beātior fuī**, *as long as I enjoyed thy favor, I was happier than a king*
> ***quoad potuit*****, restitit**, *he resisted as long as he could*
> ***quam diū*** **mihi** ***īnsidiātus es*****, mē dēfendī**, *as long as you plotted against me, I defended myself*

763. Dum, meaning *while*, takes the indicative in the historical present.

The historical present (§ 648) in this construction is generally translated by the English past progressive.

> ***dum*** **haec** ***geruntur*****, Caesarī nūntiātum est**, *while this was going on, word was brought to Cæsar*
> ***dum*** **Rōmānī** ***cōnsultant*****, iam Saguntum oppugnābātur**, *while the Romans were deliberating, Saguntum was already being besieged*

NOTE. As shown by the examples, **dum** with the present denotes *in* the time, but *not throughout* the time. In the latter sense **dum**, though it may be translated by *while*, is equivalent to *as long as*, and the tenses present no peculiarity (§ 762).

764. Dum, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, meaning *until*, take the perfect indicative to denote an *actual fact* in past time.

> **neque fīnem sequendī fēcērunt** ***quoad*** **praecipitēs hostēs** ***ēgērunt***, *nor did they cease pursuing until they routed the enemy*
> ***dōnec rediit*****, silentium fuit**, *until he returned, there was silence*
> **Rōmae fuērunt** ***quoad*** **Metellus** ***profectus est***, *they remained at Rome until Metellus set out*

765. Dum, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, meaning *until*, take the present or past subjunctive to denote *purpose* or *expectation*.

> **exspectās fortasse** ***dum dīcat***, *you are waiting perhaps for him to say (until he says)*

exspectāvit *dum* reliquae nāvēs *convenīrent*, *he waited for the rest of the ships to join him* (*until they should join him*)

Horātius impetum sustinuit *quoad* cēterī pontem *interrumperent*, *Horatius sustained the attack until the rest should cut down the bridge*

NOTE. The present and future perfect indicative are occasionally found.

766. Synopsis of constructions with **dum**, **dōnec**, **quoad**, and **quam diū**:

dum, dōnec, quoad, and **quam diū**
- I. **Dum, dōnec, quoad, quam diū**, *as long as*, indicative (§ 762)
- II. **Dum**, *while*, indicative (historical present; § 763)
- III. **Dum, dōnec, quoad,** *until*
  - *a.* Perfect indicative to denote an actual fact in past time (§ 764)
  - *b.* Present or past subjunctive to denote purpose or expectation (§ 765)

CAUSAL CLAUSES

767. Cause is expressed in Latin by three kinds of clauses:

I. **Cum** clauses of description (§ 754).

II. **Quī** clauses of description or characteristic (§ 730. I).

III. Clauses introduced by **quod**, **quia**, **quoniam**, and **quandō**.

768. **Quod** and **quia**, *because*, take (*a*) the indicative when the writer or speaker is giving *his own reason*; (*b*) the subjunctive when he is giving the *reason of another*.

a. Indicative.

fortissimī sunt Belgae propterea *quod* longissimē *absunt*, *the Belgæ are the bravest because they are the farthest away*

Helvētiī reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecēdunt *quod* ferē cotīdiānīs proeliīs cum Germānīs *contendunt*, *the Helvetii excel the remaining Gauls in valor because they fight nearly every day with the Germans*

leve erat vulnus *quia* sē *retrahēbat* ab ictū, *the wound was slight because he drew* (*himself*) *back from the blow*

b. Subjunctive.

mihi grātiae aguntur *quod* virtūte meā rēs pūblica *sit līberāta*, *thanks are given to me because* (as they say) *the state has been set free by my courage*

Haeduī querēbantur *quod* Harūdēs fīnēs *populārentur*, *the Hædui complained because* (as they said) *the Harudes were laying the country waste*

mea māter īrāta est *quia* nōn *redierim*, *my mother is angry because I did n't return* (as she says)

Note 1. The subjunctive is used on the principle of implied indirect discourse (§ 906).

Note 2. **Quia** regularly introduces a statement of fact, and rarely takes the subjunctive.

769. **Quoniam** and **quandō**, *since*, introduce a reason of the writer or speaker, and take the indicative.

***quoniam* supplicātiō *dēcrēta est*, celebrātōte illōs diēs,** *since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days*

***quandō* ita *vīs*, dī bene vortant,** *since you so wish, may the gods bless the undertaking*

Note. **Quandō**, originally temporal (*when*), is rarely used in the causal sense in classic Latin prose.

770. **Nōn quod**, **nōn quia**, and **nōn quō** (for **nōn eō quod**) introduce a possible but rejected reason, and hence take the subjunctive.

haec servanda cēnseō, *nōn quod probem*, sed quia etc., *I think these should be preserved, not because I approve of them, but because* etc.

a. **Nōn quīn**, *not that not*, with the subjunctive, is sometimes used for **nōn quod nōn**.

voluī ad tē scrībere, *nōn quīn cōnfīderem* dīligentiae tuae, sed etc., *I wished to write to you, not that I did not trust your diligence, but* etc.

b. The indicative is sometimes used in clauses of this sort when the statement is a fact, though not accepted as the true reason.

haec dīxit ōrātor, *nōn quod timēbat*, sed quod etc., *the orator said this, not because he was afraid* (as he really was), *but because* etc.

771. Synopsis of causal constructions:

Causal clauses are expressed by

- I. **Quod** and **quia**
  - *a.* With the indicative when the writer or speaker gives his own reason (§ 768. *a*)
  - *b.* With the subjunctive when the writer or speaker gives, not his own reason, but the reason alleged by another (§ 768. *b*)
- II. **Quoniam** and **quandō** with the indicative (§ 769)
- III. **Cum** (*since*) with the subjunctive (§ 754)
- IV. **Quī** with the subjunctive (§ 730. I)

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

772. A clause expressing a condition, introduced by *if* or by some equivalent word, is called a conditional clause.

773. A sentence that contains a conditional clause is called a conditional sentence.

774. A conditional sentence is complex and consists of two parts:[1]

a. A subordinate (adverbial) clause, commonly introduced by **sī**, *if*, and expressing the condition.

b. A principal clause, expressing the conclusion, that is, the statement which is true in case the condition expressed in the **sī** clause is true.

> **sī obsidēs ab eīs dentur** (condition), **cum eīs pācem faciat** (conclusion), *if hostages should be given by them, he would make peace with them*

NOTE. The term "condition" is often applied to the whole sentence, including the condition and conclusion.

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[1] The conditional complex sentence has arisen, like other complex sentences (§ 708), from two sentences originally independent but closely related in thought. Thus, *laugh, and the world laughs with you* is an earlier and simpler form of expression than *if you laugh, the world laughs with you*. The conditional particle **sī** was originally an adverb meaning *so*, and its conjunctional use and meaning developed later. Conditional sentences without **sī** occur in all periods of Latin and are a survival of the earlier linguistic form.

775. Use of *sī* and its Compounds. The conditional clause, when *affirmative*, is introduced by **sī**, *if*; when *negative*, by **nisi**, *unless*. But if the negative applies to only one word, **sī nōn** is used instead of **nisi**.

> **āctum dē tē est *nisi prōvidēs***, *it's all over with you unless you look out*
> ***sī nōn* eāsdem opēs *habēmus*, eandem tamen patriam habēmus**, *if we have not the same resources, we have nevertheless the same native land*

a. **Nisi sī**, *except if, unless*, occurs for **nisi**. **Nī** for **nisi** is mostly poetic or late.

776. Sīn, *but if*, introduces a supposition contrary to one that precedes; **nisi vērō** or **nisi forte** an *ironical* objection.

> **accūsātor illum dēfendet sī poterit; *sīn minus poterit*, negābit**, *the accuser will defend him if he can; but if he cannot, he will refuse*

777. Sīve (or **seu**), *or if*, is generally used as a correlative (**sīve** (or **seu**) . . . **sīve** (or **seu**), *if . . . or if, whether . . . or*) to introduce alternative conditional clauses.

> **facilis est rēs, *sīve manent sīve proficīscuntur***, *the matter is easy, whether they stay or go*

Classification of Conditional Sentences

778. Particular and General Conditions. Any kind of conditional sentence may be either (*a*) particular or (*b*) general.

a. A particular condition refers to a definite act, or series of acts, occurring at some definite time.

b. A general condition refers to any one of a series of acts which may occur, or may have occurred, at any time.

For example, *if the enemy should cross the river, they would be driven back* is a particular condition; but *if at any time the enemy crosses the river, they are always driven back* is a general condition.

c. Particular and general conditions usually have the same form. For special forms of general conditions see § 800.

779. Conditional sentences, according to the *time* of the supposed case, are divided into three classes:

I. Present conditions II. Future conditions III. Past conditions

780. Present and past conditions are of two kinds: *non-committal* and *contrary to fact.*

781. A present or past condition is *non-committal* when nothing is said or implied as to the truth or falsity of the case supposed.

> *If this is gold* (perhaps it is, perhaps it is n't), *it is valuable*

782. A present or past condition is *contrary to fact* when the supposition has been realized and found to be false.

> *If this were gold* (but it is n't), *it would be valuable*

783. Future conditions are of two kinds: *more definite* and *less definite.*

a. A *more definite* future condition states a future possibility distinctly, expressing a doubt as to whether it *will* or *will not* be the case.

> *If this proves to be gold* (that remains to be seen and is a future possibility), *it will be valuable*

b. A *less definite* future condition states a future possibility less distinctly, expressing a doubt as to whether it *would* or *would not* be the case.

> *If this should prove to be gold, it would be valuable*

I. *Present Conditions*

784. Present conditions are either non-committal or contrary to fact.

785. Present non-committal conditions regularly take the present indicative in both clauses.

> **sī hoc *facit*, *laudātur*,** *if he is doing this, he is being praised*

a. The verb in the conclusion of a present non-committal condition is not always an indicative, but may be a hortatory or an optative subjunctive, an imperative, or any other form demanded by the sense.

> **sī lībertātem servāre nōn possumus, *moriāmur*,** *if we cannot preserve our liberty, let us die* (hortatory subjunctive in the conclusion)
>
> **sī vērum nōn dīcō, deī supplicium *sūmant*,** *if I am not speaking the truth, may the gods punish me* (optative subjunctive in the conclusion)
>
> **sī nōndum satis cernitis, *recordāminī*,** *if you do not yet see clearly, recollect* (imperative in the conclusion)

786. Present conditions contrary to fact regularly take the past subjunctive in both clauses.

sī hoc *faceret*, *laudārētur*, *if he were doing this* (but he is not), *he would be praised* (at the present time)

sī dīves *essem*, non avārus *essem*, *if I were rich, I should not be avaricious*

sī *vīveret*, verba eius *audīrētis*, *if he were living, you would hear his words*

II. *Future Conditions*

787. Future conditions are either *more definite* or *less definite*, and express future possibility (cf. § 783).

788. More definite future conditions regularly take the future indicative in both clauses, the conclusion stating what *will be* the result if the condition is (*shall be*) realized.

sī hoc *faciet*, *laudābitur*, *if he does* (*shall do*) *this, he will be praised*

sī dīves *erō*, nōn avārus *erō*, *if I shall be rich, I shall not be avaricious*

nātūram sī *sequēmur* ducem, numquam *aberrābimus*, *if we* (*shall*) *follow nature as guide, we shall never go astray*

sī Gallī obsidēs *mittent*, Caesar cum eīs pācem *faciet*, *if the Gauls* (*shall*) *send hostages, Cæsar will make peace with them*

Note. In English the conditional clause is usually expressed by the present indicative, rarely by the future with *shall*.

789. Less definite future conditions regularly take the present subjunctive[1] in both clauses, the conclusion stating what *would be* the result if the condition *should be* realized.

sī hoc *faciat*, *laudētur*, *if he should do this, he would be praised*

sī dīves *sim*, nōn avārus *sim*, *if I should be rich, I should not be avaricious*

haec sī tēcum patria *loquātur*, nōnne impetrāre *dēbeat*, *if your native land should thus speak with you, would she not deserve to prevail?*

quod sī quis deus mihi *largiātur*, valdē *recūsem*, *if some god should grant me this, I should stoutly refuse*

---

[1] The subjunctive in the conditional clause of a less definite future conditional sentence is hortatory by origin, and the subjunctive in the conclusion is potential (§ 687).

790. The future perfect is used in the conditional clause instead of the future, and the perfect subjunctive instead of the present, when the conditional act is regarded as *completed* before that of the conclusion begins.

> **id sī *fēceris*, magnam habēbō grātiam**, *if you do (shall have done) this, I shall be very grateful*
>
> **sī *relictus sim*, nōn possim dīcere**, *if I should be (should have been) deserted, I should be unable to speak*

Note. Not infrequently the future perfect is found in both clauses.

> **mihi grātum *fēceris* sī hunc *comprehenderis***, *you will do (will have done) me a favor if you receive (shall have received) him*

III. *Past Conditions*

791. Past conditions are either non-committal or contrary to fact.

792. Past non-committal conditions regularly take the past descriptive or perfect indicative in both clauses.

> **sī hoc *faciēbat*** (or ***fēcit***), ***laudābātur*** (or ***laudātus est***), *if he did this, he was praised*
>
> **sī dīves *eram*, nōn avārus *eram***, *if I was rich, I was not avaricious*
>
> **sī ita *exīstimāvistī*, vehementer *errāvistī***, *if you thought so, you were greatly mistaken*
>
> **sī probus es, poenam nōn *meruistī***, *if you are good, you did not deserve punishment.* [Non-committal condition, with a present conditional clause and a past conclusion.]

Note. The conclusion of a past non-committal condition may assume a great variety of forms. Cf. § 785. *a.*

793. Past conditions contrary to fact regularly take the past perfect subjunctive in both clauses.

> **sī hoc *fēcisset*, *laudātus esset***, *if he had done this* (but he did not), *he would have been praised*
>
> **sī dīves *fuissem*, nōn avārus *fuissem***, *if I had been rich, I should not have been avaricious*
>
> **nisi tū *āmīsissēs*, numquam *recēpissem***, *unless you had lost it, I should never have recovered it*

Synopsis of Conditional Sentences

794. The use of moods and tenses in regular conditional sentences is shown in the synopsis on the opposite page.

Special Peculiarities of Conditional Sentences

Peculiar Future Conditions

795. The conclusion of a future condition may be in any form that expresses or implies future time: as, the imperative, the present indicative of the periphrastic conjugations and of verbs of *necessity*, *possibility*, and the like.

> **quid, sī hostēs veniant, *factūrī estis*,** *what are you going to do if the enemy should come?*
>
> ***possum* istum accūsāre, sī cupiam,** *I can accuse him if I desire*

796. A future condition is sometimes regarded from a past point of view. In such cases the past or past perfect subjunctive is used without implying that the condition is contrary to fact.

> **Caesar sī *peteret*, nōn quicquam *prōficeret*,** *if even Cæsar were to ask, he would gain nothing.* [This is simply **sī petat, nōn prōficiat,** viewed from the past.]

Peculiar Conditions Contrary to Fact

797. Past tenses of the indicative may be used in the conclusion of conditions contrary to fact, as follows:

a. With verbs like **oportet, decet, dēbeō, possum, necesse est, opus est.**

b. With verbs in the active or passive periphrastic conjugation.

c. With **longum, aequum, difficile, melius,** etc. in such expressions as **longum erat,** *it would be tedious*; **difficile erat,** *it would be difficult*; **melius fuerat,** *it would have been better.*

> **nōn *potuit* fierī sapiēns, nisi nātus esset,** *he could not have become a sage if he had not been born*
>
> **sī prīvātus esset, tamen is *erat dēligendus*,** *if he were a private citizen, yet he ought to be chosen*

Note. In this construction the past descriptive indicative usually refers to present time, and the perfect or past perfect to past time.

SYNOPSIS OF CONDITIONS

- I. Present
  - *a.* Non-committal
    - Present indicative in both clauses:
      - **sī adest, bene est**, *if he is* (now) *here, it is well*
  - *b.* Contrary to fact
    - Past subjunctive in both clauses:
      - **sī adesset, bene esset**, *if he were* (now) *here, it would be well* (but he is NOT here)
- II. Future
  - *a.* More definite
    - 1. Future indicative in both clauses:
      - **sī aderit, bene erit**, *if he is* (*shall be*) *here, it will be well*
    - 2. Future perfect indicative in the condition, future indicative in the conclusion:
      - **sī adfuerit, bene erit**, *if he is* (*shall have been*) *here, it will be well*
  - *b.* Less definite
    - 1. Present subjunctive in both clauses:
      - **sī adsit, bene sit**, *if he should be here, it would be well*
    - 2. Perfect subjunctive in the condition, present subjunctive in the conclusion:
      - **sī adfuerit, bene sit**, *if he should be* (*should have been*) *here, it would be well*
- III. Past
  - *a.* Non-committal
    - Past descriptive or perfect indicative in both clauses:
      - **sī aderat, bene erat**, *if he was* (then) *here, it was well*
      - **sī adfuit, bene fuit**, *if he has been* (*was*) *here, it has been* (*was*) *well*
  - *b.* Contrary to fact
    - Past perfect subjunctive in both clauses:
      - **sī adfuisset, bene fuisset**, *if he had* (then) *been here, it would have been well* (but he was NOT here)

798. The past subjunctive may be used in either the condition or the conclusion of a condition contrary to fact, to denote continued action in past time or a past state of affairs that still exists.

Carthāgō nōn concidisset, nisi ea urbs classibus nostrīs *patēret*, *Carthage would not have fallen, had not that city been* (constantly) *open to our fleets*

799. In poetry the present subjunctive is sometimes used, instead of the past, in conditions contrary to fact.

nec, sī *sciat, imperet* illīs (Ovid), *nor, if he knew, could he control them*

Special Forms of General Conditions

800. Special forms of general conditions (§ 778. *b, c*), denoting repeated or customary action, are shown in the following table:

TIME	CONDITION	CONCLUSION
PRESENT	Present subjunctive, second person singular, of an indefinite subject, or perfect indicative	Present indicative
PAST	Past or past perfect subjunctive (rare in classic Latin), or past perfect indicative	Past indicative

memoria *minuitur* sī eam nōn *exerceās*, *the memory grows weak if you don't exercise it*

sī quōs inūtilēs *notāvērunt*, necārī *iubent*, *if they* (ever) *mark any as infirm, they* (always) *order them to be put to death*

sī quis *prehenderētur, ēripiēbātur*, *if any one was* (ever) *arrested, he was* (always) *rescued*

sī quis equō *dēciderat, circumsistēbant*, *if any one* (ever) *fell from his horse, they* (always) *surrounded him*

a. General conditions are often introduced by **cum** or **ubi**, meaning *whenever* (§§ 746, 752).

> **cum rosam *vīderat*, tum incipere vēr *arbitrābātur*,** *whenever he saw a rose, then he thought spring was beginning*

NOTE. In this construction the perfect indicative is usually translated by the English present, and the past perfect by the English past. See examples above.

CONDITIONAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

801. Relative clauses often express condition, and may take the place of any of the forms of condition found in conditional sentences.

> ***quī* mentīrī *solet*, peierāre cōnsuēvit,** *whoever is in the habit of lying is accustomed to swear falsely.* [= **sī quis solet**, present noncommittal.]
>
> ***quisquis* hūc *vēnerit*, vāpulābit,** *whoever comes here shall get a thrashing.* [= **sī quis vēnerit**, future more definite.]
>
> ***quaecumque* vōs causa hūc *attulisset*, laetārer,** *whatever cause had brought you here, I should be glad.* [= **sī qua . . . attulisset**, past contrary to fact.]

SUBSTITUTES FOR REGULAR CONDITIONS

802. Condition may be expressed by a word or a phrase, instead of appearing in the regular form with **sī**; or it may be merely implied (§ 687).

> **facile mē paterer, *illō ipsō iūdice quaerente*, prō Rōsciō dīcere,** *I should readily allow myself to speak for Roscius, if that very judge were conducting the case.* [Present contrary to fact, **sī quaereret, paterer**.]
>
> **quid hunc paucōrum annōrum *accessiō* iuvāre potuisset,** *what good could the addition of a few years have done him?* [Past contrary to fact, **sī accessissent, quid . . . potuisset?**]
>
> ***commovē*: sentiēs,** *stir him up: you will find* etc. [Future more definite, **sī commovēbis, sentiēs**.]

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

803. Conditional clauses of comparison are introduced by comparative particles meaning *as if*, and take the subjunctive, present or perfect, unless the sequence of tenses requires the past or the past perfect.

a. The commoner particles meaning *as if* are **ac sī**, **ut sī**, **quasi**, **tamquam**, **tamquam sī**, **velut**, and **velut sī**.

> **absentis Ariovistī crūdēlitātem horrent,** ***velut sī*** **cōram** ***adsit***, *they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as if he were present*
> **absentis Ariovistī crūdēlitātem horrēbant,** ***velut sī*** **cōram** ***adesset***, *they shuddered at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as if he were present*

NOTE. The English idiom would lead us to expect the past or past perfect subjunctive (contrary to fact) in these clauses; but from the Latin point of view they are really less definite future conditions, with the conclusion omitted. Thus the first example above really means, *they shudder at the cruelty of Ariovistus in his absence, as* (they would shudder) *if* (at some future time) *he should be present.* In other words, the real conclusion is suppressed.

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

804. Concessive clauses *concede* something or state that something is true *in spite of* something else. In the latter sense they are sometimes called *adversative* clauses.

805. Concession is often expressed by the volitive subjunctive in an independent sentence (§§ 671, 677), but it more frequently takes a dependent form and shows the following varieties:

1. **Quī** clause of description, with the subjunctive (§ 730. II).
2. **Cum** clause of description, with the subjunctive (§ 755).
3. **Quamquam**, **etsī**, and **tametsī** with the indicative.
4. **Quamvīs** or **ut** with the subjunctive.
5. **Licet** with the subjunctive.

NOTE. The principal clause is often introduced by **tamen**, *yet, nevertheless.*

806. Quamquam, etsī, and **tametsī,** *although*, introduce an *admitted fact*, and take the indicative.[1]

quamquam sunt eiusdem generis, sunt hūmāniōrēs, *although they are of the same race, they are more civilized*

quamquam omnis virtūs nōs ad sē _adlicit_, tamen līberālitās id maximē efficit, *although every virtue attracts us, yet generosity does so most of all*

etsī sine ūllō perīculō proelium fore _vidēbat_, tamen committendum nōn putābat, *although he saw that the battle would be without any danger, yet he did not think that it should be begun*

807. Quamquam more commonly means *and yet*, and introduces a new proposition in the indicative.

quamquam quid _loquor_, *and yet, why do I speak?*

808. Etsī, tametsī, etiam sī, meaning *even if*, are really conditional particles, and take the indicative or subjunctive according to the rules for conditional sentences (§§ 785–793).

optimī faciunt quod honestum est, _etsī_ nūllum ēmolumentum cōnsecūtūrum _vident_, *the best men do what is honorable, even if they see that no reward will follow.* [Present non-committal.]

nōnne patria impetrāre dēbeat, _etiam sī_ vim adhibēre nōn _possit_, *should not our country gain its request, even if it should be unable to use force?* [Future less definite.]

809. Quamvīs, *to whatever degree, however*, and **ut,** *although*, take the subjunctive.[1]

avārī indigent, _quamvīs_ dīvitēs _sint_, *the avaricious are poor, however rich they may be*

_ut_ omnia contrā opīniōnem _accidant_, tamen plūrimum nāvibus possunt, *though everything should happen contrary to expectation, yet they are greatly superior in ships*

a. **Quamvīs** (**quam vīs**, literally *as* (much as) *you wish*) is generally used in expressions involving comparison or degree. It is therefore often found with adjectives and adverbs.

quamvīs malī, *however wicked*

quamvīs multum, *however much*

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[1] In poetry quamquam occurs with the subjv. and **quamvīs** with the indic.

810. **Licet,** *although,* takes the present or perfect subjunctive.

> ***licet*** **omnēs mihi terrōrēs** ***impendeant,*** **dīcam,** *though all terrors should menace me, I will speak*

NOTE. **Licet** is properly a verb in the present tense, meaning *it is granted.* Hence the subjunctive following it is limited by sequence of tenses to the present or perfect. It was not used as a mere conjunction until after Cicero.

CLAUSES OF PROVISO

811. **Dum, modo,** and **dummodo (dum modo),** *provided, if only,* introduce a proviso, and take the present or past subjunctive. The negative is **nē.**

> **magnō mē metū līberābis,** ***dum modo*** **inter mē atque tē mūrus** ***intersit,*** *you will release me from great fear, if only a wall is between you and me*
>
> ***dum*** **nē tibi** ***videar,*** **nōn labōrō,** *provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care*
>
> **omnia postposuī,** ***dummodo*** **praeceptīs patris** ***pārērem,*** *I considered everything else of secondary importance, if only I might obey my father's precepts*

NOTE. This is a development of the volitive subjunctive (§ 671).

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

812. An indirect question is a dependent substantive clause, introduced by an interrogative word (§ 621). The verb is in the subjunctive.[1]

813. Indirect questions depend on verbs or other expressions of *asking, doubting, fearing, thinking, perceiving, telling,* and the like, and are usually object clauses.

814. Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, by **-ne** or **num,** or by **sī.**

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[1] In early Latin the indicative is used in indirect questions. The origin of the subjunctive construction is uncertain.

a. By interrogative pronouns and adverbs.

ostendit *quae* fierī *vellet*, *he showed what he wished to be done*
expōnam *quid sentiam*, *I will explain what I think*
intellegō *quantō* cum perīculō id *fēcerim*, *I understand with how great danger I have done that*
nescit *ubi sit*, *he does not know where he is*

b. By **-ne** or **num**, used without distinction, in the sense of *whether*.

cōnsuluit *possetne* id fierī, *he took counsel whether it could be done*
quaerō *num* id *permittās*, *I ask whether you allow it*

c. By **sī**, in the sense of *whether*, sometimes with omission of the governing verb.

***sī* nostrī *trānsīrent*, hostēs exspectābant,** *the enemy were waiting* (to see) *whether our men would cross*

815. Indirect questions referring to future time usually take the subjunctive of the active periphrastic conjugation (§ 668. *a*).

dīcam tibi *quid factūrus sim*, *I'll tell you what I am going to do*

NOTE. The sentence above could also be written **dīcam tibi quid faciam**, but this might be translated *I'll tell you what I am doing.* The periphrastic forms remove all ambiguity.

816. The indirect question sometimes represents, not a direct question in the indicative, but a direct rhetorical question in the deliberative subjunctive (§ 678).

***quo* mē *vertam* nesciō,** *I do not know which way to turn.* [Direct form: **quō mē vertam**, *whither shall I turn?*]
neque satis cōnstābat *quid agerent*, *and it was not very clear what they had better do.* [Direct form: **quid agāmus**, *what shall we do?*]

817. Indirect alternative questions have the same introductory particles as direct alternative questions (§ 627), but *or not* in the second member is expressed by **necne** rather than by **annōn**.

cōnsuluērunt *utrum* statim *necārētur an* in aliud tempus *reservārētur*, *they deliberated whether he should be killed at once or kept for some other time*

dēlīberātur dē Avaricō, incendī *placeat an* dēfendī, *a discussion is held concerning Avaricum, whether it seems desirable that it be burned or defended*

quaesīvī ā Catilīnā, in conventū *fuisset necne*, *I asked Catiline whether he had been at the meeting or not*

818. **Haud sciō an** or **nesciō an,** *I am inclined to think*, *probably* (literally *I do not know whether*), takes the subjunctive in an alternative indirect question, the first member of which is omitted.

***haud sciō an* hoc melius *sit*,** *I am inclined to think that this is better*

ēloquentiā *nesciō an habuisset* parem nēminem *in oratory he would probably have had no peer*

819. **Forsitan,** *perhaps*, is followed by the subjunctive in an indirect question, the adverb standing for an original **fors sit an,** *it would be a chance whether.*

***forsitan requīrās* quae fāta Priamī fuerint,** *perhaps you inquire what the fate of Priam was*

820. **Nesciō quis,** as an indefinite pronoun meaning *some one*, and the adverbial phrases **nesciō quō modō, nesciō quō pactō,** *somehow*; **nesciō quandō,** *at some time*; and the like, are not followed by the subjunctive.

nūper *nesciō quis* ex mē *quaesīvit*, *recently some one asked me*

sed *nesciō quō pactō* omnium scelerum mātūritās nunc *ērūpit*, *but somehow the ripeness of all crimes has now burst forth*

Quod Clauses of Fact

821. Dependent substantive clauses introduced by **quod,** *that, the fact that,* take the indicative.

Like other substantive clauses, the clause of fact with **quod** may be used as subject, object, appositive, etc.

822. The **quod** clause of fact is used as subject, especially after verbs of *happening* (**fit, accidit, ēvenit,** etc.) modified by adverbs like **bene** or **male.**

> ***quod rediit,*** **nōbīs mīrābile vidētur,** *that he returned seems wonderful to us*
>
> **bene mihi ēvenit,** ***quod*** **ad mortem** ***mittor,*** *it happens well for me that I am sent to death*
>
> **opportūnē acciderat,** ***quod*** **lēgātī** ***vēnerant,*** *it had happened opportunely that ambassadors had come*

823. The **quod** clause of fact is used as appositive with a preceding noun or demonstrative (**hoc, illud, id, inde, ex eō, propterea,** etc.).

> **opportūnissima rēs accidit,** ***quod*** **Germānī** ***vēnērunt,*** *a very fortunate thing happened,* (namely) *that the Germans came*
>
> **in hōc sumus sapientēs,** ***quod*** **nātūram** ***sequimur,*** *we are wise in this, that we follow nature*
>
> **hoc ūnum in Alexandrō vituperō,** ***quod*** **īrācundus** ***fuit,*** *this one thing I censure in Alexander, that he was quick-tempered*
>
> **hōc est miserior fortūna,** ***quod*** **nē in occultō quidem querī** ***audent,*** *their lot is more pitiful in this, that they do not dare to complain even in secret*

824. A **quod** clause of fact is sometimes used as an accusative of respect (§ 427), **quod** having the meaning *as to, as for the fact that.* Such a **quod** clause regularly precedes the main clause.

> ***quod*** **mē Agamemnonem aemulārī** ***putās,*** **falleris,** *as to your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken*
>
> ***quod*** **mihi** ***grātulāris,*** **minimē mīrāmur,** *as to your congratulating me, we are not at all surprised*

825. Substantive clauses with **quod**, substantive clauses with **ut** or **nē** (§§ 724, 739), and infinitive clauses with subject accusative (§ 839) are constructions so nearly equivalent that sometimes any one of the three may be used with relatively little difference in meaning.

VERBAL NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

826. The verbal nouns and adjectives are the infinitives, the participles, the gerund, and the supine.

THE INFINITIVE

827. The infinitive is a verbal noun, that is, a verb form which partakes of the nature of a noun. Like a noun, it has certain case constructions; like a verb, it has tense and voice, may be modified by adverbs, and often takes an object.

NOTE. The forms of the Latin infinitive are by origin partly dative and partly locative.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

828. The tenses of the infinitive are the present, perfect, and future. These do not denote time independently, but their time depends on that denoted by the leading verb.

a. The present infinitive denotes the *same time* as that of the leading verb.

sciō tē *scrībere*, *I know that you are writing*
sciēbam tē *scrībere*, *I knew that you were writing*

b. The perfect infinitive denotes *time before* that of the leading verb.

sciō tē *scrīpsisse*, *I know that you have written*
sciēbam tē *scrīpsisse*, *I knew that you had written*

NOTE. In indirect discourse (§ 887. I. *b*) the perfect infinitive may represent any past tense of the indicative.

c. The future infinitive denotes *time after* that of the leading verb.

sciō tē *scrīptūrum esse*, *I know that you will write*
sciēbam tē *scrīptūrum esse*, *I knew that you would write*

NOTE. The future infinitive is used only in indirect discourse (§ 887. I. *b*).

829. With past tenses of verbs of *necessity*, *propriety*, and *possibility* (as **dēbuī, oportuit, potuī**), the present infinitive is generally used in Latin where the English idiom prefers the perfect infinitive.

dēbuit *scrībere*
oportuit eum *scrībere* } *he ought to have written*
potuit *scrībere*, *he could have written*
illī contrā patriam arma *ferre* nōn dēbuērunt, *they ought not to have borne arms against their country*

Note. The perfect infinitive when used emphasizes the idea of completed action.

830. The present infinitive is sometimes used in indirect discourse to express continued or repeated action in past time, standing for the past descriptive indicative of the direct discourse.

tē meminī *dīcere*, *I remember that you used to say.* [Direct: **dīcēbās**.]

831. Verbs that have no participial stem (§ 209), and hence lack the future infinitive, use as its equivalent the periphrastic form **futūrum esse** (or **fore**) with **ut** and the subjunctive.

spērābat *fore ut* pertināciā *dēsisteret*, *he hoped that he would cease from his obstinacy*

a. The same periphrastic construction is often used, especially for the future passive infinitive, even when the verb has a participial stem.

dīcit *fore ut* urbs *dēleātur*, *he says that the city will be destroyed.* [Instead of **dīcit urbem dēlētum īrī**.]

Common Uses of the Infinitive

832. In general the infinitive has the uses of a neuter noun.

The Infinitive as Subject

833. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as subject with **est** and a predicate noun or adjective.

bellum *gerere* scelus est, *to wage war is a crime*
***dolēre* malum est**, *to suffer pain is an evil*
perfacile est cōnāta *perficere*, *to accomplish their undertakings is very easy*
mīrum est tē nihil *scrībere*, *it is strange that you write nothing*

a. The noun or adjective in the predicate is sometimes a **possessive genitive.**

iūdicis **est vērum sequī**, *to follow truth is* (the duty) *of a judge*

834. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as subject with impersonal verbs and expressions like **libet, licet, oportet, decet, placet, vīsum est, pudet, paenitet, necesse est, opus est, cōnstat, fāma est, interest, rēfert,** etc.

necesse est ***morī***, *it is necessary to die*
vīsum est iter ***facere***, *it seemed best to march*
trāditum est Homērum caecum ***fuisse***, *the report has been handed down that Homer was blind*

a. As shown in the last example above, a predicate noun or adjective is usually in the accusative; but if the impersonal verb or expression is followed by the dative, the predicate word is also in the dative. Thus regularly with **licet.**

mihi ***neglegentī*** **esse nōn licet**, *it is not permitted me to be negligent*

The Infinitive as Appositive or Predicate Noun

835. The infinitive, with or without a subject accusative (§ 419), may be used as an appositive or as a predicate noun.

miserārī, invidēre, gestīre, laetārī, **haec omnia morbōs Graecī appellant**, *to feel pity, envy, desire, joy, all these things the Greeks call diseases*
vidēre est ***crēdere***, *seeing is believing*
id est convenienter nātūrae ***vīvere***, *that is to live in conformity with nature*
hoc tantum petō, tē nōn ***proficīscī***, *I ask only this, that you do not set out*

The Infinitive as Object

836. The infinitive, without subject accusative, is used after many verbs *to denote another action of the same subject.*

This is called the *complementary infinitive*, because it completes the thought introduced by the finite verb.

NOTE. With transitive verbs the complementary infinitive may be regarded as the direct object. With intransitive verbs it may be regarded as an adverbial modifier.

837. Verbs followed by the complementary infinitive are especially:

volō (nōlō, mālō), cupiō, optō, studeō, *desire*
statuō, cōnstituō, cōgitō, in animō habeō, *decide, plan*
coepī, incipiō, pergō, *begin*
omittō, dēsistō, cessō, *cease*
cōnor, nītor, mōlior, temptō, *try*
contendō, mātūrō, properō, *hasten*
metuō, timeō, vereor, *fear*
cōnsuēscō, soleō, *be wont*
possum, *be able*
dēbeō, *ought*
sciō, *know how*
audeō, *dare*
dubitō, *hesitate*
discō, *learn*

cōnstituērunt ea *comparāre*, *they decided to prepare those things*
cōpiās *parāre* cessērunt, *they ceased to prepare forces*
***iūdicārī* nōn dēbet**, *it ought not to be judged*
iam sē *sustinēre* nōn poterat, *he could not hold up longer*

a. Some verbs take either a subjunctive clause or a complementary infinitive without difference in meaning.

contendit oppidum *capere* or **contendit *ut* oppidum *caperet***, *he strove to take the town*

838. A predicate noun or adjective after a complementary infinitive is in the nominative.

fierī *doctior* studēbam, *I was eager to become wiser*
***brevis* esse labōrō**, *I struggle to be brief*

a. The infinitive may have a reflexive pronoun as subject accusative. In that case the predicate noun or adjective is also in the accusative.

cupiō mē esse *clēmentem*, *I desire to be merciful*

839. The infinitive, with subject accusative, is used as object with the following classes of verbs:

a. Very commonly with verbs of *saying* (**dīcō**, **nūntiō**, etc.), *thinking* (**putō**, **exīstimō**, etc.), *knowing* (**sciō**, **cognōscō**, etc.), and *perceiving* (**videō**, **audiō**, **sentiō**, etc.).

This is the regular construction of principal clauses in indirect discourse (§ 887. I).

> **lēgātī haec *sē relātūrōs esse* dīxērunt**, *the ambassadors said that they would report these matters*
> **nōn exīstimāmus *Rōmānōs* sine ope dīvīnā bellum *gerere***, *we do not think that the Romans wage war without divine aid*
> **Caesar cognōvit *montem* ā suīs *tenērī***, *Cæsar learned that the mountain was held by his men*
> **sentiō in hāc urbe *esse cōnsulēs* vigilantēs**, *I perceive that in this city there are vigilant consuls*

b. With **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, **cupiō**, and **studeō**, when the subject of the infinitive is not the same as that of the governing verb.

> **nōlō *tē* suspectum *esse***, *I do not wish you to be suspected*
> ***rem* ad arma *dēdūcī* studētis**, *you are desirous that the matter be brought to* (a decision of) *arms*

c. With **iubeō** and **vetō**.

> ***līberōs* obsidēs ad sē *addūcī* iubet**, *he bids the children to be brought to him as hostages*
> **dux *captīvōs vincīrī* vetuit**, *the leader forbade the captives to be bound*

d. With **sinō** and **patior**.

> **Nerviī *vīnum* ad sē *īnferrī* nōn patiēbantur**, *the Nervii did not permit wine to be brought to them*

e. With verbs of feeling or emotion: as,

gaudeō, **laetor**, *rejoice*
doleō, **maereō**, *grieve*
graviter (**molestē**, etc.) **ferō**, *be annoyed*
mīror, **admīror**, *wonder, be surprised*
queror, *complain*
indignor, *be indignant*

mīror *tē nescīre*, *I am surprised that you do not know*
***exercitum hiemāre* in Galliā molestē ferēbant,** *they were annoyed that the army was wintering in Gaul*

NOTE. As most of these verbs imply *thinking* or *saying*, the dependent construction may be regarded as indirect discourse (§ 885). Verbs of this type are often followed by a causal clause with **quod** (§ 768).

840. The infinitive may be used with the passive of many verbs which in the active take the infinitive with subject accusative; so especially with **dīcor**, **exīstimor**, **iūdicor**, **putor**, **videor**, and (in the third person) **trāditur**, **trāduntur**, **fertur**, **feruntur**.

centum pāgōs *habēre* dīcuntur, *they are said to have a hundred cantons*
Lycūrgī temporibus Homērus *fuisse* trāditur, *Homer is said to have lived in the time of Lycurgus*

a. Passive verbs with the infinitive are generally personal in the present system and impersonal in the perfect system.

So the first example above, with the passive verb changed to the perfect, would become —

eōs centum pāgōs habēre *dictum est*, *it was said that they had a hundred cantons*

NOTE. **Nārrō**, **nūntiō**, and **trādō** are always impersonal in the perfect passive system.

SPECIAL USES OF THE INFINITIVE

The Infinitive with Adjectives

841. **Parātus**, **suētus**, and their compounds take the infinitive like the verbs from which they are derived.

omnia *perpetī* parātī, *ready to endure everything*
adsuēfactī *superārī*, *used to being conquered*

a. This construction was extended in poetry and late prose writers to many other adjectives.

dūrus *compōnere* versūs, *harsh in composing verse*

The Infinitive of Purpose

842. Poets and early prose writers often use the infinitive to express purpose, contrary to the usage of classic prose.

> **nōn ferrō Libycōs *populāre* Penātēs vēnimus,** *we have not come to lay waste with the sword the Libyan homes*
> **lōrīcam dōnat *habēre* virō,** *he gives the hero a breastplate to wear*

The Infinitive in Exclamation

843. The infinitive, with or without the interrogative particle **-ne** attached to the emphatic word of the clause, may be used in an exclamation or exclamatory question to express *surprise*, *anger*, or *regret.*

> **tē in tantās aerumnās propter mē *incidisse*,** *to think that you should have fallen into such grief for me!*
> ***mēne* inceptō *dēsistere* victam,** *what! I beaten desist from my purpose?*

***a*.** Exclamatory questions are sometimes expressed by the subjunctive with or without **ut.**

> **tē *ut* ūlla rēs *frangat*,** *what! anything crush you?*

The Historical Infinitive

844. In descriptive narration the present infinitive may be used instead of the past descriptive indicative, and has its subject in the nominative.

> **cotīdiē *Caesar* Haeduōs frūmentum *flāgitāre*,** *every day Cæsar was asking the Hædui for the grain*
> **pars cēdere, aliī īnsequī,** *a part gave way, others pressed on*

Note. This construction is very rare in subordinate clauses and is never used to state a mere historical fact. It is always descriptive, and is especially common where several important actions occur in rapid succession, leading to a climax or crisis.

The Infinitive as a Pure Noun

845. The infinitive is sometimes a pure noun, and as such may be limited by an adjective or may be the object of a preposition.

hic *verērī* perdidit, *he has lost his sense of shame*
hoc nōn *dolēre*, *this freedom from pain*
***scīre* tuum**, *your knowledge*
nīl praeter *plōrāre*, *nothing except tears*

PARTICIPLES

846. The participle is a verbal adjective, and combines all the functions of an adjective with some of the functions of a verb. Like an adjective, it agrees with a noun in gender, number, and case (§ 497); like a verb, it has tense and voice, may be modified by adverbs, and often takes an object.

Tenses of the Participle

847. The tenses of the participle are the present, past, and future. The participle, like the infinitive, does not denote time independently, but its time depends on that denoted by the leading verb.

a. The present participle denotes the *same time* as that of the leading verb.

videō mīlitem *sequentem*, *I see the soldier following*
vīdī mīlitem *sequentem*, *I saw the soldier following*

b. The past participle denotes *time before* that of the leading verb.

mīles *secūtus* adest, *the soldier followed and is present* (lit. *having followed is present*)
mīles *secūtus* aderat, *the soldier had followed and was present*

c. The future participle denotes *time after* that of the leading verb.

mīles *secūtūrus* adest, *the soldier* (who is) *about to follow is present*

Tense Peculiarities

848. The past participles **ratus, solitus, veritus**, regularly, and others occasionally, are used as present.

rem incrēdibilem ***ratī***, *thinking the thing incredible*
īnsidiās ***veritus***, *fearing an ambuscade*

849. The present participle sometimes denotes *attempted* action.

Flāminiō restitit agrum Pīcentem ***dīvidentī***, *he resisted Flaminius* (who was) *attempting to divide the Picene territory*

LACKING FORMS OF THE PARTICIPLE

850. As compared with English, the Latin participle is defective. It lacks (*a*) the present passive (cf. English *being seen*) and (*b*) the past active (cf. English *having seen*).

NOTE. Deponent verbs, being passive in form but active in meaning, are, therefore, the only verbs capable of giving a literal rendering of an English perfect active participle: as, **secūtus**, *having followed.*

851. The place of the missing present passive participle is supplied usually by a clause with **dum** or **cum**.

obiēre ***dum calciantur*** **duo Caesarēs**, *two Cæsars died while their shoes were being put on*
mē ista dēlectant ***cum*** **Latīnē** ***dīcuntur***, *those things please me, being spoken in Latin*

852. The place of the missing past active participle is generally supplied by the past passive participle in the ablative absolute, or by a clause with **cum** or **postquam**.

convocātīs centuriōnibus **mīlitēs certiōrēs facit**, *having called the centurions together* (lit. *the centurions having been called together*), *he informs the soldiers*
cum vēnisset, **animadvertit collem**, *having come* (lit. *when he had come*), *he noticed a hill*
postquam **id animum** ***advertit***, **cōpiās suās in proximum collem subdūcit**, *having observed this* (lit. *after he had observed this*), *he led his troops to the nearest hill*

COMMON USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

853. Like a verb, the participle may take an object when its meaning allows. Like an adjective or a verb, the participle may take an adverbial modifier.

***vidēns* montem**, *seeing the mountain*
***hortātus* mīlitēs**, *having encouraged the soldiers*
magnā vōce *loquēns*, *speaking in a loud voice*

854. The participle, when used as an adjective, may be either attributive or predicate.

Attributive Use of the Participle

855. The present and past participles are sometimes used as attributive adjectives.

aeger et *flagrāns* animus, *his sick and passionate mind*
māter *amāta*, *a beloved mother*

856. The only future active participles used as attributive adjectives in Ciceronian Latin are **futūrus** and **ventūrus**. The future passive participle is occasionally so used at all periods.

rēs *futūrae*, *future events*
nōn *ferenda* iniūria, *an intolerable wrong*

Predicate Use of the Participle

857. A participle in the predicate may be joined to the subject by **esse**.

Gallia est *dīvīsa*, *Gaul is divided*

858. The past participle is used with the incomplete tenses of **esse** to form the compound tenses of the passive.

***amātus* sum**, *I have been loved*
***amātus* eram**, *I had been loved*
***amātus* erō**, *I shall have been loved*

859. The future active participle in **-ūrus** is used with the forms of **sum** to make the *active periphrastic conjugation* (§ 249. *a*).

> ***amātūrus* sum**, *I am about to love*
> **praeter quod sēcum *portātūrī* erant**, *except what they intended to carry with them*

860. The future passive participle in **-ndus** is used with the forms of **sum** to make the *passive periphrastic conjugation* (§ 249. *b*).

> ***amandus* sum**, *I must be loved*
> **Caesarī omnia ūnō tempore erant *agenda***, *Cæsar had to do everything at the same time* (lit. *everything had to be done at the same time by Cæsar*)
> **omnēs cruciātūs sunt *perferendī***, *all* (kinds of) *cruelty have to be endured*

a. Intransitive verbs are always *impersonal* in the passive periphrastic, and take their usual cases (genitive, dative, or ablative).

> ***concēdendum esse* nōn putābat**, *he did not think that he ought to comply* (lit. *that it ought to be complied*)
> **temporī *serviendum est***, *one must obey the* (demands of the) *time*
> ***ūtendum est* exercitātiōnibus modicīs**, *we must use moderate exercise*

b. Transitive verbs are occasionally impersonal in the passive periphrastic, but may have an accusative object.

> ***agitandum est* vigiliās**, *I have got to stand guard*

861. The present and past participles are often used as predicate, where in English a phrase or a subordinate clause would be more natural. In this use participles express especially *time*, *cause*, *means*, *manner*, *condition*, and *concession*.

a. Time.

> **Platō *scrībēns* mortuus est**, *Plato died while writing* (or *in the act of writing*)

b. Cause.

> **quibus rēbus Caesar vehementer *commōtus* mātūrandum sibi existimāvit**, *because he was greatly disturbed by these facts, Cæsar thought that he ought to hasten*

c. Means.

sōl *oriēns* diem cōnficit, *the sun, by its rising, causes the day*

d. Manner.

***flentēs* implōrābant,** *they begged with tears*

e. Condition.

***damnātum* poenam sequī oportēbat,** *if he was condemned, punishment was to overtake him*

f. Concession.

beneficiō *adfectus* hanc grātiam refert, *though he has been treated with kindness, he makes this return*

862. A coördinate clause is often compressed into a past participle.

***īnstrūctōs* ōrdinēs in locum aequum dēdūcit,** *he draws up the lines, and leads them to level ground*

SPECIAL USES OF THE PARTICIPLE

863. Participles, like adjectives, may be used as nouns.

rēctē *facta* paria esse dēbent, *right deeds ought to be like in value*
opīniōnem *pugnantium* praebent, *they give the impression of men fighting*

864. Videō, audiō, faciō, and a few other verbs may take a present participle in the predicate instead of an infinitive.

vīdī urbem *concidentem*, *I saw the city falling*
Xenophōn facit Sōcratem *disputantem*, *Xenophon represents Socrates as discussing*

865. The past participle is used with **habeō** with almost the same meaning as the perfect or past perfect indicative active.

vectīgālia *redēmpta habet*, *he has bought up the revenues*
perfidiam Haeduōrum *perspectam habēbat*, *he had observed the treachery of the Hædui*

866. A noun and a participle are often so combined that the participle and not the noun contains the main idea.

ante urbem *conditam*, *before the founding of the city*
post *nātōs* hominēs, *since the creation of man*
Sicilia Sardiniaque *āmissae*, *the loss of Sicily and Sardinia*

867. The past participle with a noun in agreement, or in the neuter as an abstract noun, is used in the ablative with **opus**, *need* (§ 469. *b*).

> **opus *factō* est viāticō**, *there is need of providing traveling expenses*
> ***mātūrātō* opus est**, *there is need of haste*

868. The future active participle (rarely the present) is sometimes used by poets and late writers to express *purpose*.

> **ēgreditur vāllum *invāsūrus***, *he comes forth to attack the rampart*

869. After the verbs **cūrō**, *see to*; **dō, trādō, mandō**, *give over*; **concēdō**, *surrender*; **relinquō**, *leave*; **suscipiō**, *undertake*; **locō**, *contract for*; and a few others, the future passive participle is used in agreement with the object to denote *purpose*.

> **pontem *faciendum* cūrāvit**, *he saw to the building of a bridge*
> **agrōs *vāstandōs* trādidit**, *he gave over the fields to be laid waste*
> **signum *conlocandum* locāvērunt**, *they contracted to have the statue erected*

THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

870. The Gerundive is the name given to the future passive participle when used as a verbal adjective in agreement with a noun. The gerundive, unlike the participle, does not express necessity or obligation.

> **bellum *gerendum* est**, *the war must be waged.* [Participle.]
> **cupidus bellī *gerendī***, *desirous of waging war.* [Gerundive.]

871. The Gerund is the neuter singular of the gerundive used as an active verbal noun in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative.

Note. The nominative singular of the gerund is supplied by the present active infinitive: as, *overcoming* (or *to overcome*) *danger demands courage.*

Nom.	**superāre**	*overcoming* *to overcome*	Infinitive
Gen.	**superandī**, *of overcoming*		Gerund
Dat.	**superandō**, *for overcoming*		
Acc.	**superandum**, *overcoming*		
Abl.	**superandō**, *by overcoming*		

872. A comparison of the gerund and gerundive shows the following points of difference:

a. The gerund is a verbal noun. The gerundive is a verbal adjective.

b. The gerund is active. The gerundive is passive.

c. The gerund may stand alone or with an object. The gerundive always accompanies and agrees with a noun.

NOTE 1. The gerund and gerundive are translated in the same way although of different construction. Thus, **spēs urbem *capiendī*** (gerund) and **spēs urbis *capiendae*** (gerundive) are both translated *hope of taking the city*; but the latter, rendered literally, would be *hope of the city to be taken.*

NOTE 2. To change from the gerund to the gerundive construction, put the object of the gerund into the case of the gerund, and change the gerund to a gerundive agreeing with it. See the example in Note 1.

CASE CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE

873. The gerund and gerundive have in general the same case constructions as nouns.

874. The **genitive** of the gerund and gerundive is used with nouns or adjectives.

GERUND	GERUNDIVE
cōnsilium *habendī* spatium, *time for forming a plan*	**cōnsilī *habendī* spatium**, *time for forming a plan*
cupidus bellum *gerendī*, *desirous of carrying on war*	**cupidus bellī *gerendī***, *desirous of carrying on war*

875. The genitive of the gerund and gerundive is used with **causā** or **grātiā** to express *purpose.*

> ***frūmentandī* causā prōgressī sunt**, *they advanced for the purpose of gathering grain*

876. With **meī**, **tuī**, **suī**, **nostrī**, and **vestrī**, even when the pronoun refers to the feminine or the plural, the gerundive ends in **ī**.

> **Tarpeia ōrnāmenta cupīvit suī *ōrnandī* causā**, *Tarpeia desired jewels to adorn herself*
>
> **Haeduī lēgātōs ad Caesarem suī *pūrgandī* grātiā mittunt**, *the Hædui send ambassadors to Cæsar to excuse themselves*
>
> **hoc vestrī *adhortandī* causā nōn dīcō**, *I do not say this to encourage you*

877. The **dative** of the gerund and gerundive is used with adjectives denoting fitness.

librī ūtilēs *legendō*, *books useful for reading*
tempora frūctibus *percipiendīs* accommodāta, *seasons suitable for gathering the harvest*
aetās bellō *gerendō* mātūra, *a time of life ripe for carrying on war*

a. The dative of the gerund and gerundive may be used with verbs and with nouns. The latter are usually names of officials, and the dative denotes the purpose for which they serve.

hī *scrībendō* aderant, *these were present at the writing*
duumvirī agrīs *adsignandīs*, *duumviri for the assignment of lands*
diem praestitit operī *faciendō*, *he appointed a day for doing the work*

NOTE. The dative of the *gerund* with a direct object should not be used, but the *gerundive* as above.

878. The **accusative** of the gerund and gerundive is used with **ad** to denote purpose.

diem ad *dēlīberandum* sūmam, *I will take time for deliberating*
vīvis nōn ad *dēpōnendam* sed ad *cōnfīrmandam* audāciam, *you live not to put off but to confirm your daring*

NOTE 1. The accusative of the *gerund* with a preposition should never be used with a direct object; the *gerundive* is used instead (see above).

NOTE 2. Rarely other prepositions appear in this construction.

879. The **ablative** of the gerund and gerundive is used to express *cause*, *means*, etc., and after the prepositions **ab**, **dē**, **ex**, or **in**.

coniūrātiōnem nōn *crēdendō* corrōborāvērunt, *they have strengthened the conspiracy by not believing*
oculī turgidulī *flendō*, *eyes swollen with weeping*
***conciendō* ad sē multitūdinem**, *by calling to them a multitude*
reperiēbat in *quaerendō*, *he found on investigating*
in equīs *parandīs* cūra, *care in providing horses*
dē *expugnandō* oppidō, *concerning the storming of the town*

NOTE. When the ablative of the gerund has no preposition, it may be used with a direct object, as in the third example; but after a preposition only the gerundive construction is possible, as in the last two examples.

Relative Frequency and Limitations of the Gerund and Gerundive

880. When the participial phrase contains a substantive, either the gerund or the gerundive construction is, as a rule, permissible, though the latter is more common in classical Latin. However, the following limitations are to be observed:

a. The gerund with a direct object is permissible only in the genitive and in the ablative without a preposition.

b. Only the gerund is permissible with a neuter adjective used substantively.

ars vēra ac falsa ***dīiūdicandī***, *the art of distinguishing true from false*

Note. This is to avoid ambiguity. The equivalent gerundive phrase, **ars vērōrum ac falsōrum** ***dīiūdicandōrum***, would mean *the art of distinguishing true men from false men.*

c. Only the gerund is used when the verb is intransitive.

eīs ***persuādendī*** **causā**, *for the sake of persuading them*

Note. **Ūtor**, **fruor**, **fungor**, **potior**, **vēscor**, originally transitive, may be used in either the gerund or the gerundive construction.

THE SUPINE

881. The supine is a verbal noun of the fourth declension, and has but two forms, the accusative in **-um** and the ablative in **-ū**.

882. The supine has only two uses:

I. The supine in **-um** is used after verbs of motion to express purpose.[1]

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[1] A conspectus of the commonest constructions employed to express purpose is shown in the following table:

Purpose may be expressed by
- The subjunctive
  - 1. Adverbial clauses, introduced by **ut** or **nē** (§ 713)
  - 2. Relative clauses (§ 715)
  - 3. Substantive clauses, used as subject (§ 721), object (§ 720), or appositive (§ 724)
- The gerund or gerundive (§§ 875, 878)
- The supine in **-um** (§ 882. I)

lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt *rogātum* auxilium, *they send envoys to Cæsar to ask aid*
fīliam *nūptum* dat, *he gives his daughter in marriage* (lit. *to marry*)

a. The supine in **-um** may take an object, as in the first example.

NOTE. The supine in **-um** with **īrī**, the passive infinitive of **eō**, forms the future passive infinitive.

sciēbat sē *trucīdātum īrī*, *he knew that he was going to be murdered*

But the future passive infinitive is rare; **fore ut** with the subjunctive is regularly employed instead (§ 831. *a*).

II. The supine in **-ū** is used with a few adjectives, and with the nouns **fās, nefās,** and **opus,** as an ablative of respect (§ 478).

perfacile *factū* est, *it is very easy to do*
difficile *dictū* est, *it is hard to say*
nefās est *dictū*, *it is a sin to say*

a. The supine in **-ū** never takes an object.

b. The only supines in **-ū** in common use are **cognitū**, **dictū**, **factū**, **nātū**, and **vīsū**. Adjectives frequently followed by the supine are **facilis**, **difficilis**, **horribilis**, **incrēdibilis**, and **mīrābilis**.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE

883. The original words of a speaker or writer quoted without change, in the form of an independent sentence, are said to be in *direct* discourse.

Caesar dīcit: *Belgae sunt fortēs*, *Cæsar says, "The Belgæ are brave"*

884. The words of a speaker or writer quoted in dependent form after a verb of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, or *perceiving* are said to be in *indirect* discourse.

Caesar dīcit *Belgās esse fortēs*, *Cæsar says that the Belgæ are brave*

885. Verbs and other expressions of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, *perceiving*, and the like are commonly followed by indirect discourse.

Verbs of *saying*: **dīcō, nūntiō, referō, polliceor, prōmittō**, etc.
Verbs of *thinking*: **putō, arbitror, exīstimō**, etc.
Verbs of *knowing*: **sciō, cognōscō**, etc.
Verbs of *perceiving*: **videō, audiō, sentiō, intellegō, comperiō**, etc.

a. The verb of *saying*, etc., is sometimes implied by the context.

886. General Rule. In indirect discourse the verbs in the principal clauses of declarative sentences are in the infinitive, and the verbs in the subordinate clauses are in the subjunctive.

PRINCIPAL CLAUSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

887. Principal clauses of direct discourse, on becoming indirect, show the following changes:

I. Principal clauses, when *declarative*, change the indicative to the infinitive with subject accusative.

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
diēs *īnstat*, *the day is at hand*	**intellēxit diem *īnstāre***, *he perceived that the day was at hand*
Helvētiī castra *mōvērunt*, *the Helvetii moved their camp*	**cognōvit Helvētiōs castra *mōvisse***, *he learned that the Helvetii had moved their camp*
Allobrogibus *persuādēbimus*, *we shall persuade the Allobroges*	**exīstimābant sē Allobrogibus *persuāsūrōs* (*esse*)**, *they thought that they should persuade the Allobroges*

a. The subject accusative of the infinitive is regularly expressed in indirect discourse, even when the subject of the verb is unexpressed as a pronoun in the direct.

DIRECT: **ōrātor sum**, *I am an orator*
INDIRECT: **dīcit *sē* esse ōrātōrem**, *he says that he is an orator*

b. The tenses of the infinitive in indirect discourse denote time *contemporaneous with*, *prior to*, or *subsequent to* that of the verb by which the indirect discourse is introduced (§ 885).

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE
Present indicative	becomes	Present infinitive
Past descriptive Perfect Past perfect } indicative	becomes	Perfect infinitive
Future active indicative	becomes	Future active infinitive
Future passive indicative	becomes	**fore** (**futūrum esse**) **ut** with the present or past subjunctive[1]
Future perfect indicative	becomes	**fore** (**futūrum esse**) **ut** with the perfect or past perfect subjunctive

NOTE 1. The present infinitive **posse** often has a future force.

> **tōtīus Galliae sēsē potīrī *posse* spērant**, *they hope that they shall be able to get possession of the whole of Gaul*

NOTE 2. The infinitive construction is regularly continued after a comparative with **quam**.

> **addit sē prius occīsum īrī quam mē *violātum īrī***, *he adds that he himself will be killed sooner than I shall be injured*

II. Principal clauses, when *interrogative*, change the indicative of the direct discourse to the subjunctive if the question is real; to the infinitive if the question is rhetorical.[2]

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
quid *vīs*? cūr *venīs*, *what do you want? why do you come?* [Real questions.]	**dīxit quid *vellet*? cūr *venīret***, *he said what did he want? why did he come?*
num memoriam dēpōnere *possum*, *can I lay aside the memory?* [Rhetorical question.]	**dīxit num memoriam sē dēpōnere *posse***, *he said could he lay aside the memory?*

NOTE 1. Real questions are generally in the second person, rhetorical questions in the first or third; but no sharp line can be drawn between them.

NOTE 2. Questions, either real or rhetorical, directly following a verb of *asking*, are treated as indirect questions and take the subjunctive (§ 812).

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[1] Or (rarely) future passive infinitive.

[2] Rhetorical questions (§ 620. *b*) do not ask for information, but are equivalent to statements; hence they are treated like declarative sentences (§ 887. I).

a. The deliberative subjunctive (§ 678) remains subjunctive in indirect discourse.

DIRECT: **quid *facerem*,** *what was I to do?*
INDIRECT: **dīxit quid *faceret*,** *he said what was he to do?*

III. Principal clauses, when *imperative* (that is, when expressing *commands*, *prayers*, *wishes*, and *prohibitions*), have the verb in indirect discourse in the subjunctive. The negative is **nē.**

DIRECT DISCOURSE		INDIRECT DISCOURSE
Imperative	becomes	Present subjunctive after a primary tense Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Subjunctive (volitive or optative)	remains	Subjunctive, though the tense may be changed by the law of tense sequence

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
***reminīscere* veteris incommodī**, *remember the ancient disaster*	**dīxit *reminīscerētur* veteris incommodī**, *he told him to remember the ancient disaster*
***amēmus* patriam**, *let us love our country*	**dīxit *amārent* patriam**, *he told them to love their country*
istō bonō *ūtāre*, *use that blessing*	**dīcit istō bonō *ūtātur***, *he says that he should use that blessing*
nōlī dubitāre, *don't hesitate*	**dīcit *nē dubitet***, *he tells him not to hesitate*

a. A prohibition with **nōlī** and the infinitive (§ 676. *a*) becomes the subjunctive with **nē**, as shown in the last example.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

888. Subordinate clauses, on becoming indirect, take the subjunctive.

889. The tenses of the subjunctive in indirect discourse follow the rule for sequence of tenses (§ 695), and depend on the verb by which the indirect discourse is introduced.

Direct Discourse		Indirect Discourse
Present Future indicative	becomes	Present subjunctive after a primary tense Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Perfect Future perfect indicative	becomes	Perfect subjunctive after a primary tense Past perfect subjunctive after a secondary tense
Past descriptive indicative	becomes	Perfect subjunctive after a primary tense Past subjunctive after a secondary tense
Past perfect indicative	becomes	Perfect subjunctive after a primary tense Past perfect subjunctive after a secondary tense

890. A subjunctive in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse remains subjunctive when the clause becomes indirect; but the tense may be changed to conform to the law of tense sequence.

891. A past or past perfect subjunctive in the subordinate clause of a condition contrary to fact always remains unchanged in indirect discourse (see § 900).

892. The following examples include both principal and subordinate clauses:

Direct Discourse	Indirect Discourse
sunt nōn nūllī quōrum auctōritās plūrimum *valeat*, *there are some whose influence is very strong*	**dīcit esse nōn nūllōs quōrum auctōritās plūrimum *valeat***, *he says that there are some whose influence is very strong*
id quod in Nerviīs *fēcī* faciam, *I will do that which I did in the case of the Nervii*	**respondit sē id quod in Nerviīs *fēcisset* factūrum esse**, *he replied that he would do that which he had done in the case of the Nervii*

DIRECT DISCOURSE	INDIRECT DISCOURSE
ad Caesarem ībō ut pācem *petam*, *I will go to Cæsar that I may beg for peace*	**dīxit sē ad Caesarem itūrum ut pācem *peteret***, *he said that he would go to Cæsar that he might beg for peace*
ob eam causam quam diū *potuī* tacuī, *for this reason I have kept silence as long as I could*	**dīcit ob eam causam sē quam diū *potuerit* tacuisse**, *he says that for this reason he has kept silence as long as he could*

893. The subjunctive depending on a perfect infinitive is usually in the past or past perfect in indirect discourse, even if the verb of *saying* etc. is in a primary tense (cf. § 703).

> **satis mihi multa verba *fēcisse* videor quā rē *esset* hoc bellum necessārium**, *I think I have said enough to show why this war is necessary*

894. The present or perfect subjunctive is often used after a secondary tense to make the narrative more vivid (cf. § 707).

> **dīcēbant totidem Nerviōs pollicērī, quī longissimē *absint***, *they said that the Nervii, who live farthest off, promised as many*

895. Subordinate clauses inserted by the narrator himself, and not part of the indirect discourse, are in the indicative.

> **referunt silvam esse, quae *appellātur* Bācenis**, *they say that there is a forest, which is called Bacenis*

896. Clauses introduced by a relative which is equivalent to a demonstrative with a conjunction (§ 564) are subordinate only in form, and hence take the accusative and infinitive in indirect discourse like declarative principal clauses (§ 887. I).

> **quibus proeliīs frāctōs *Haeduōs coāctōs esse* Sēquanīs obsidēs dare**, *and that weakened by these battles the Hædui had been compelled to give hostages to the Sequani*

897. If the verb of a relative clause is the same as that of the principal clause, it may be omitted and its subject attracted into the accusative.

> **tē suspicor iīsdem rēbus quibus *mē ipsum*** (instead of **ego ipse**) **commovērī**, *I suspect that you are moved by the same things as I*

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE

898. The condition in a conditional sentence is a subordinate clause, and the conclusion is a principal clause. Hence in indirect discourse —

I. The condition is always in the subjunctive.

II. The conclusion, if declarative, is always in some form of the infinitive.

899. Conclusions that are interrogative or imperative in form are treated like other principal clauses of that sort. See § 887. II, III.

900. Conditional sentences show the following changes in mood and tense on passing from direct to indirect discourse:

Form of Condition	Condition (Subordinate Clause)	Conclusion (Principal Clause)
I. Non-committal (present and past)	Indicative becomes subjunctive	Indicative becomes infinitive Imperative becomes subjunctive Subjunctive remains subjunctive
II. More and less definite (future)	Indicative becomes subjunctive Subjunctive remains subjunctive	Future active indicative or present active subjunctive becomes future active infinitive Future passive indicative or present passive subjunctive becomes **fore** (**futūrum esse**) **ut** with the present or past subjunctive Future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive becomes **fore** (**futūrum esse**) **ut** with the perfect or past perfect subjunctive
III. Contrary to fact (present and past)	Past or past perfect subjunctive remains unchanged	Past or past perfect active subjunctive becomes the future participle with **fuisse** Past or past perfect passive subjunctive becomes **futūrum fuisse ut** with the past subjunctive

901. The changes required in conditional sentences when they pass from direct to indirect discourse are illustrated by the following examples:

Direct Discourse	Indirect Discourse
I. Non-committal (present and past)	
1. **sī pugnās, vincis,** *if you fight, you conquer*	1. **dīcō sī *pugnēs,* tē *vincere*** **dīxī sī *pugnārēs,* tē *vincere***
2. **sī pugnās, vince,** *if you fight, conquer* 3. **sī pugnās, vincās,** *if you fight, may you conquer*	2, 3. **dīcō sī *pugnēs, vincās*** **dīxī sī *pugnārēs, vincerēs***
II. More and less definite (future)	
1. **sī pugnābis, vincēs,** *if you (shall) fight, you will conquer.* [More definite.] 2. **sī pugnēs, vincās,** *if you should fight, you would conquer.* [Less definite.]	1, 2. **dīcō sī *pugnēs,* tē *victūrum esse.*** [More and less definite.] **dīxī sī *pugnārēs,* tē *victūrum esse.*** [More and less definite.]
3. **sī pugnābis, vincēris,** *if you (shall) fight, you will be conquered.* [More definite.] 4. **sī pugnēs, vincāris,** *if you should fight, you would be conquered.* [Less definite.]	3, 4. **dīcō sī *pugnēs, fore ut vincāris.*** [More and less definite.] **dīxī sī *pugnārēs, fore ut vincerēris.*** [More and less definite.]
III. Contrary to fact (present and past)	
1. **sī pugnārēs, vincerēs,** *if you were fighting, you would be conquering.* [Present.]	1. **dīcō,** or **dīxī, sī *pugnārēs,* tē *victūrum fuisse.*** [Present.]
2. **sī pugnāvissēs, vīcissēs,** *if you had fought, you would have conquered.* [Past.]	2. **dīcō,** or **dīxī, sī *pugnāvissēs,* tē *victūrum fuisse.*** [Past.]
3. **sī pugnārēs, vincerēris,** *if you were fighting, you would be conquered.* [Present.]	3. **dīcō,** or **dīxī, sī *pugnārēs, futūrum fuisse ut vincerēris.*** [Present.]
4. **sī pugnāvissēs, victus essēs,** *if you had fought, you would have been conquered.* [Past.]	4. **dīcō,** or **dīxī, sī *pugnāvissēs, futūrum fuisse ut vincerēris.*** [Past.]

902. Observe that more and less definite future conditions assume the same form in indirect discourse and cannot be distinguished.

903. Observe that in indirect discourse present and past conditions contrary to fact have the same form in the conclusion, but that they retain the regular distinction of tense in the condition.

904. Observe that the tenses of the subjunctive follow the rules of tense sequence except in conditions contrary to fact.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE

905. The presence of the subjunctive in a subordinate clause may show that it is an indirect quotation, even though there is no verb of *saying* or the like in the principal clause.

Paetus omnīs librōs quōs frāter suus *relīquisset* mihi dōnāvit, *Pætus presented to me all the books which* (he said) *his brother had left*

Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum quod *essent pollicitī* flāgitāre, *Cæsar kept asking the Hædui for the grain which* (he asserted) *they had promised*

906. The principle of implied indirect discourse explains the use of the subjunctive in causal clauses when the reason given is that of another than the speaker or writer (§ 768, *b*).

queritur quod *dēsertus sit*, *he complains because* (as he says) *he has been deserted*

THE SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION

907. A subordinate clause depending on a subjunctive or an infinitive clause, and *essential to its thought*, is attracted into the subjunctive.

hortātus sum ut ea quae *scīret* sine timōre indicāret, *I urged him to disclose without fear the things which he knew*

quis tam dissolūtō animō est, quī haec cum *videat*, tacēre possit, *who is of so reckless a spirit that, when he sees these things, he can keep silent?*

mōs est Athēnīs laudārī in cōntiōne eōs quī *sint* in proeliīs *interfectī*, *it is the custom at Athens for those to be eulogized in the assembly who have been killed in battle*

908. The dependent clause must be a necessary and logical part of the subjunctive or infinitive clause, or no attraction takes place.

mīlitēs mīsit ut eōs quī *fūgerant* persequerentur, *he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled*

nē hostēs, quod tantum multitūdine *poterant*, suōs circumvenīre possent, *lest the enemy, because they were so strong in numbers, should be able to surround his men*

909. The subjunctive in implied indirect discourse and the subjunctive by attraction are so closely related that it is often difficult to distinguish between them.

THE ORDER OF WORDS

GENERAL PRINCIPLES

910. The words of an English sentence stand in a more or less fixed order, which shows their grammatical relation to each other. In Latin this relation is shown by *inflection*, and the *order* of the words depends mainly upon the connection of thought, the emphasis, and the principles of euphony.

911. The two most important places in the Latin sentence are the beginning and the end, and the words standing there have a corresponding value.

NOTE. The clear indication of the beginning and end of the sentence by the order of words was the more important to the Romans because they had no marks of punctuation.

912. The normal[1] order of the simple, independent, disconnected sentence is as follows:

1. Subject.
2. Modifiers of the subject.

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[1] By *normal* is meant the order in which no attempt is made to give any part of the sentence unusual emphasis or to secure rhythmic or euphonic effects.

3. Object. If there are both a direct and an indirect object, the indirect sometimes precedes the direct and sometimes follows it.

4. Adverb.

5. Verb.

The position of other elements, such as ablatives, prepositional phrases, etc., cannot be exactly formulated, but is determined largely by emphasis and euphony.

913. In connected narrative the first sentence normally begins with the subject, and each succeeding sentence with whatever word links the thought of the sentence with that of the sentence preceding.

> ***palūs*** **erat nōn magna inter nostrum atque hostium exercitum.** ***Hanc*** **sī nostrī trānsīrent hostēs exspectābant**, *there was a swamp of no great size between our army and that of the enemy. The enemy were waiting to see whether our men would cross this*

Note that the first sentence is introduced by **palūs**, the subject, but the second by **hanc**, the linking word. Observe also the next two examples:

> ***subitum bellum*** **in Galliā coörtum est.** ***Eius*** **bellī haec fuit causa**, *a sudden war arose in Gaul. Of that war the cause was as follows*
>
> ***ipse*** **in Īllyricum proficīscitur.** ***Eō*** **cum vēnisset, mīlitēs certum in locum convenīre iubet.** ***Quā*** **rē nūntiātā Pīrūstae lēgātōs ad eum mittunt. Perceptā ōrātiōne** ***eōrum*** **Caesar obsidēs imperat**, *he himself set out for Illyricum. Upon his arrival there, he ordered soldiers to assemble in a particular place. When this was reported, the Pirustæ sent envoys to him. Having heard their plea, Cæsar demanded hostages*

a. The relative pronoun is thus frequently used as a connecting link (§ 564).

> ***quod*** **ubi Caesar animadvertit, lēgātī ita respondērunt**, *when Cæsar noticed this, the legates replied as follows*

SPECIAL RULES

Attributive Adjectives and Genitives

914. Attributive adjectives in general both precede and follow their nouns.

a. Numeral adjectives, adjectives of quantity and size, as **omnis, tōtus, magnus,** etc., and the adjectives **alius, alter, ūllus, nūllus,** normally precede.

***decima* legiō,** *the tenth legion*
***tōtum* oppidum,** *the entire town*
***ingēns* multitūdō,** *a huge number*
***aliud* iter,** *another way*

b. The position of many adjectives has been fixed by custom.

populus *Rōmānus*, *the Roman people*
rēs *pūblica*, *the commonwealth*
dī *immortālēs*, *the immortal gods*
rēs *frūmentāria*, *the grain supply*
***Sacra* Via,** *the Sacred Way* (a street in Rome)

c. Proper adjectives usually follow their nouns.

Sōcratēs *Athēniēnsis*, *Socrates the Athenian*

915. Genitives in general both precede and follow their nouns.

a. **Causā** and **grātiā** are always preceded by their genitive.

***honōris* causā,** *for the sake of honor*
***exemplī* grātiā,** *for example*

b. The genitives of interrogative and relative pronouns always precede their nouns, and the genitives of other pronouns generally do so.

***cuius* magnae cōpiae,** *whose great forces*
***eōrum* obsidēs,** *their hostages*

c. In stereotyped phrases consisting of a noun modified by a genitive, the genitive generally follows.

pater *familiās*, *father of a family*
tribūnus *plēbis*, *tribune of the people*
mīlia *passuum*, *thousands of paces*
But ***senātūs* cōnsultum,** *a decree of the senate*

916. When a noun is modified by both an adjective and a genitive, the usual order is *adjective*, *noun*, *genitive*; less frequently adjective, genitive, noun. The order genitive, noun, adjective is rare.

īnferior pars īnsulae, *the lower part of the island*
magna hominum multitūdō, *a great number of men*

917. Prepositions usually precede an adjective with its noun, but monosyllabic prepositions (especially **cum**, **dē**, **ex**, and **in**) often stand between the adjective and its noun.

ad **latus apertum**, *on the exposed side*
ex **proximīs nāvibus**, *from the nearest ships*
summā ***cum*** **laude**, *with the highest praise*

a. Relative and interrogative adjectives usually precede the preposition.

quā **dē causā**, *for this reason*
quam **ob rem**, *wherefore*
quem **ad modum**, *how*

PRONOUNS

918. **Hic**, **iste**, **ille**, **is**, and **īdem**, used as pronominal adjectives, and indefinite pronominal adjectives normally precede their nouns.

haec **spēs**, *this hope*
ista **vīta**, *that life*
ille **exercitus**, *that army*
aliqua **causa**, *some case*

a. **Ille** in the sense of *that* (or *the*) *famous*, *that* (or *the*) *well-known*, normally follows its noun (see § 538).

919. Possessive pronominal adjectives normally follow their nouns.

domus ***mea***, *my house*
pater ***noster***, *our father*
cōpiae ***suae***, *his forces*

920. **Quisque** regularly follows **sē** or **suus**, superlatives, and ordinals.

ad suam *quisque* domum, *each to his own house*
optimus *quisque* cīvis, *all the best citizens*
quārtō *quōque* annō, *every fourth year*

921. The pronoun of the first person precedes the second, and the second the third.

ego et tū, *you and I*
tū et ille, *you and he*

922. Relatives and interrogatives normally stand first in their clauses.

NOTE. For the antecedent standing in the relative clause see § 559.

ADVERBS

923. Adverbs normally precede the words they modify; but **quidem, quoque, dēnique,** and **dēmum** regularly, and **ferē** and **saepe** usually, follow.

CONJUNCTIONS

924. Conjunctions normally introduce their clauses; but **autem, enim, vērō,** and generally **igitur**[1] stand *second*, sometimes *third*.

NOTE. Such words are said to be *postpositive*.

PREPOSITIONS

925. Prepositions normally precede their cases, but **tenus, versus,** and enclitic **cum** (§ 277. *d*) follow.

a. A preposition may follow its case. This is rare in prose, but occurs in poetry, especially with prepositions of two syllables.

vēstibulum *ante* (Vergil), *before the entrance*

NOTE. Observe the idiomatic order in ***per* tē *deōs* ōrō**, *I beseech you by the gods.*

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[1] **Igitur** sometimes stands *first*.

VERBS

926. The finite verb normally tends to stand last.

Ariovistus lēgātōs ad eum *mittit*, *Ariovistus sends envoys to him*

a. The verb often stands first in explanatory clauses when the connecting word is **autem** or **enim.**

***loquor* autem dē commūnibus amīcitiīs,** *I am speaking now, however, about ordinary friendships*
***licet* enim mihi apud tē glōriārī,** *for it is allowed me to boast in your presence*

927. Sum has no fixed position; but when it means ***exist***, it regularly stands first or, at any rate, before its subject.

***sunt* fortēs virī,** *there are brave men*

928. Inquam, *I say*, stands after one or more words of a direct quotation and is usually followed by its subject.

"refer," *inquis*, "ad senātum," *"lay the matter before the senate," you say*
"est vērō," *inquit* Cicerō, "nōtum quidem signum," *"it is truly," said Cicero, "a very well-known seal"*

NEGATIVES

929. The negative generally precedes the verb (§ 923); if it is emphatic, it begins the sentence; if it negatives only one word, it precedes that word.

THE VOCATIVE

930. The vocative normally stands after one or more words in the sentence.

parce metū, *Cytherēa*, *cease your fear, Cytherea*

a. When emphatic, the vocative stands first.

***M. Tullī,* quid agis,** MARCUS TULLIUS, *what are you doing?*

ARRANGEMENT OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

931. Subordinate clauses normally begin with the connective and end with the verb. The intervening words are arranged in general as in principal clauses.

The distinct indication of the beginning and end of the subordinate clause was the more necessary because the Romans had no punctuation marks.

932. Subordinate clauses generally precede the principal clause; but the principal clause normally precedes clauses of purpose or result, substantive clauses in indirect discourse, and indirect questions.

***cum esset Caesar in citeriōre Galliā*, crēbrī ad eum rūmōrēs adferēbantur,** *when Cæsar was in hither Gaul, frequent reports were brought to him*
mittunt lēgātōs *quī pācem petant*, *they send envoys to beg for peace*
verēbantur *nē ad eōs exercitus noster addūcerētur*, *they feared that our army would be led against them*
certior fīēbat *omnīs Belgās obsidēs inter sē dare*, *he was informed that all the Belgæ were giving hostages to each other*
rogat mē *quid sentiam*, *he asks me what I think*

THE RHETORICAL ORDER

933. Deviations from the normal order (§ 912) are very frequent and are known as the *rhetorical* order. These deviations arise from the desire to indicate emphasis or to secure pleasing euphonic effects (see also § 938).

934. Emphasis is secured by putting words in unusual positions, as follows:

a. By inverting the normal order of the subject and verb. This transposition makes them both emphatic.

***mōvit* mē *ōrātiō* tua,** *your speech moved me*
fuimus Trōes, fuit Īlium, *we have ceased to be Trojans, Ilium is no more* (cf. § 659)

b. By placing first a word that would not normally stand there.

> ***lūce*** **sunt clāriōra tua cōnsilia,** *your plans are clearer than* DAYLIGHT

c. By taking an emphatic word or phrase out of a subordinate clause and placing it before the connective.

> ***servī meī*** **sī mē istō pactō metuerent,** etc., *if even my* SLAVES *feared me in that fashion*, etc.

d. By inverting the normal order of a noun and its modifier. This transposition makes the modifier emphatic.

> **ōrātōrēs *hī* sunt clārissimī,** THESE *orators are the most famous*
> **nōn est *mea* culpa,** *it is not* MY *fault*

e. By separating words that would normally stand together. Thus especially an emphatic adjective is separated from its noun.

> **haec rēs *ūnīus* est propria Caesaris,** *this exploit belongs to Cæsar* ALONE
> ***magna*** **dīs immortālibus habenda est grātia,** GREAT *gratitude is due to the immortal gods*
> **Gallia est *omnis* dīvīsa in partēs trēs,** *Gaul, viewed as a* WHOLE, *is divided into three parts*

f. By reversing the order of words in the second of two contrasted expressions. This is called *chias'mus* and is very common.

> **fragile corpus, animus sempiternus,** *a frail body, an immortal soul*
> **quam diū vīxit, vīxit in lūctū,** *as long as he lived, he lived in sorrow*

NOTE. Chiasmus is named from the Greek letter *chi* (X), in which the lines are crossed.

CLAUSE AND SENTENCE BUILDING

935. The connection of clause with clause and sentence with sentence is much closer in Latin than in English. There is evident a constant effort to combine into a harmonious whole the different parts of discourse and to make clear their logical relationship.

936. Structure of the Period. English narrative consists largely of short sentences, each distinct from the rest and saying one thing by itself. Latin writers, on the contrary, viewed a number of related actions or thoughts as *a whole*, and this resulted in the formation of what is known as the Period.

To form a period, the chief action or thought among a number of related ones is selected and made the principal clause, and all the other clauses are incorporated in it as subordinate elements. Generally the period begins with the subject of the principal clause, then follow the subordinate clauses, and the period closes with the predicate of the principal clause, the main verb usually standing last. In this way the thought is kept in suspense from clause to clause and is not complete until the final word. Roman writers were very fond of the periodic style, and it is imitated sometimes in English, especially in poetry, as in the following:

> High on a throne of royal state, which far
> Outshone the wealth of Ormus and of Ind,
> Or where the gorgeous East with richest hand
> Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold,
> Satan exalted sat. — "Paradise Lost," ii, 1–5

A Latin period is usually best translated into English by breaking it up into two or more short sentences.

Examples of the Latin period:

Caesar prīmum suō deinde omnium ex cōnspectū remōtīs equīs, ut aequātō omnium perīculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs proelium commīsit

Caesar, ūnā aestāte duōbus maximīs bellīs cōnfectīs, mātūrius paulō quam tempus annī postulābat, in hīberna in Sēquanōs exercitum dēdūxit

937. Euphony and Rhythm. Good writers of Latin had regard for *sound* as well as for *sense*, and this had an important effect on the order of words. They avoided a succession of monosyllabic or of polysyllabic words, as also the heaping up of a number of verbs at the end of the sentence. The orators in particular took pains to have a sentence close with a pleasing combination of short and long syllables. These closing syllables were known as the *cadence*. Certain cadences were sought after and others avoided. For example:

Favorite cadences
⏑ ⏑ ⏑ | – ⏑, **rĕpĕrĭētŭr** (tribrach and trochee)
– ⏑ | – ⏑, **quaerĕrētŭr** (two trochees)
– ⏑ –, **mūnĭunt** (cretic; cf. § 967)
– ⏑ – | – –, **crīmĭnis causā** (cretic and spondee)
Avoided cadence, – ⏑ ⏑ | – –, **omnĕ tĕnēbant** (dactyl and spondee)

Preferably a word of two or more syllables of sonorous sound was placed last.

RHETORICAL EFFECTS

938. As has been already pointed out (§ 933), emphasis is produced by deviations from the normal order of words. In addition rhetoricians employed many devices to secure unusual effects. Among those most employed are the following:

939. *Anaph'ora:* the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses.

> ***nihil*** **agis,** ***nihil*** **mōlīris,** ***nihil*** **cōgitās,** *you do nothing, you plan nothing, you think nothing*

Note. The repetition of a word at the *end* of successive clauses is called *epiph'ora.*

940. *Antith'esis:* opposition or contrast. This is often secured by placing words opposed in meaning next to each other.

> **nec audet appellāre** ***virum virgō***, *nor does the maid dare to address the hero*
>
> ***alius aliam*** **in partem fūgit,** *one fled in one direction, another in another*

Note. Antithetical phrases or pairs of words are usually contrasted by *chiasmus* (see § 934.*f*).

941. *Aposiope'sis:* an abrupt pause in the midst of a sentence, leaving the imagination to supply the remainder.

> **quōs ego —— sed mōtōs praestat compōnere fluctūs,** *whom I —— but it is better to calm the angry billows*

942. *Asyn'deton:* omission of conjunctions.

iūra, lēgēs, agrōs, lībertātem nōbīs relīquērunt, *they have left us our rights, our laws, our fields, our liberty*

NOTE. The opposite of asyndeton, when more conjunctions are expressed than is necessary, is called *polysyndeton.*

943. *Epizeux'is:* the emphatic repetition of a word.

***fuit, fuit* quondam in hāc rē pūblicā virtūs**, *there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic*

944. *Hendi'adys:* the use of two nouns with a conjunction instead of a single modified noun, or of two verbs for an adverb and verb.

ardor et impetus, *heat and attack*, for *heated attack*
tē semper *amāvī* et *dīlēxī*, *I have always loved you dearly*

945. *Hys'teron prot'eron* (the last first): a reversing of the natural order of ideas.

moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, *let us die and rush into the midst of the conflict*

946. *Interlocked order:* the placing of the attribute of one pair of words between the parts of another.

tantō *subitae* terrōre ruīnae, *with such fear of sudden disaster*

NOTE. This is a favorite Vergilian device.

947. *Li'totes:* the affirming of a thing by denying its contrary, or by understating it.

nōn sordidus auctor, *no mean authority*, meaning *a distinguished authority*

948. *Onomatopœ'ia:* the use of words whose sound suggests the sense.

exoritur clāmorque virum clangorque tubārum, *the shouts of men and the blare of trumpets rise*

949. *Oxymo'ron:* the placing together of two apparently contradictory ideas.

ārida nūtrīx, *the parched nurse*
splendidē mendāx, *gloriously false*

GRAMMATICAL TERMS

950. ***a.*** *Anacolu'thon:* a change of construction in the same sentence, leaving the first part without grammatical construction.

b. *Ellip'sis:* the omission of one or more words necessary to the sense.

c. *Enal'lage:* substitution of one form or word for another.

d. *Hypal'lage:* interchange of constructions.

e. *Ple'onasm:* the use of needless words.

f. *Syn'esis:* agreement of words according to the sense and not the grammatical form.

g. *Tme'sis* (cutting): the separation of the two parts of a compound word by other words.

h. *Zeug'ma:* the connection of a word with two others, to only one of which it strictly applies.

> **pācem an bellum gerēns**, (making) *peace or waging war* (lit. *waging peace or war*)

PART IV. VERSIFICATION

QUANTITY

951. Quantity is the *time* required for the utterance of a vowel, a consonant, or a syllable. Some sounds require much more time than others. We speak therefore of long quantity and short quantity. The marks – and ⏑ are used to indicate long and short quantity respectively. A long quantity is generally reckoned as equal in length to two short ones.

952. English poetry is based on accent, and the rhythm of English poetry depends on a regular succession of accented and unaccented syllables.

Thís is the | fórest pri|méval. The | múrmuring | pínes and the | hémlocks

Latin poetry, too, has a metrical accent (§ 978), but is based primarily on *quantity*, and the rhythm of Latin poetry depends, like music, on a regular succession of equal intervals of time.

accĭpĭ|ēns sŏnĭ|tum sax|ī dē | vertĭcĕ | pāstŏr (cf. § 967)

As the line of English depends for its rhythm upon the regular succession of the six accented syllables, so the Latin is made rhythmical by the succession of the six equal intervals or measures of time, each consisting of two long syllables or their equivalent.

QUANTITY[1] OF VOWELS

953. Long Vowels. A vowel is regularly long —

a. Before **ns**, **nf**, **nx**, and **nct**: as, **regēns**, **īnferō**, **sānxī**, **sānctum**.

b. When formed by contraction: as, **nīl** (for **nihil**), **cōgō** (for **co-agō**), **prēndō** (for **prehendō**).

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[1] A few of the leading rules for quantity are given in §§ 25–34.

954. Diphthongs. A diphthong is regularly long and is left unmarked.

Note. When **qu-**, **su-**, or **gu-** combines with a following vowel to form a single syllable, **u** has the sound of *w* and does not form a diphthong with the following vowel: as, **aquăm**, **suāvis**, **sanguĭs**.

955. Short Vowels. A vowel is regularly short —

a. Before **-nt** or **-nd**: as, **amănt**, **monĕndus**.

b. Before another vowel or **h**: as, **vĭa**, **trăhō**.

To this rule there are the following exceptions:

1. **E** in the genitive and dative singular of the fifth declension is long between two vowels: as, **diēī**; otherwise usually short: as, **fidĕī**, **rĕī**.

2. **I** in the genitive singular ending **-īus** is regularly long: as, **illīus**, **tōtīus**.

But in poetry it is regularly short in **alterĭus**, usually in **utrĭus**, and sometimes in other words.

3. **I** is long in the forms of **fīō**, except in **fĭt** and when followed by **er**. Thus, **fīēbam**, **fīam**, but **fĭerī**, **fĭerem**.

4. In a few other Latin words and in many Greek words a vowel before another vowel is long: as, **dīus**, **Aenēās**, **āēr**, **hērōas**.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS IN FINAL SYLLABLES

956. Most nouns and adjectives of one syllable have a long vowel: as, **bōs**, **ōs** (**ōris**), **pār**, **sōl**, **vīs**.

But the vowel is short in **cŏr**, **ŏs** (**ŏssis**), **quŏt**, **tŏt**, and **vĭr**.

957. Most monosyllabic particles have a short vowel: as, **ăn**, **cĭs**, **nĕc**, and the attached (enclitic) particles **-cĕ**, **-nĕ**, **-quĕ**, **-vĕ**.

But the vowel is long in **cūr**, **nōn**, and **quīn**.

958. Most adverbs in **c** have a long vowel in the final syllable: as, **hīc**, **hūc**, **illīc**, **illūc**, **sīc**.

959. Final **a** is long in the ablative singular of the first declension, in imperatives (except **pută**), and in indeclinable words except **ită** and **quiă**. Elsewhere it is generally short. Thus, **tubā** (abl.), **amā**, **frūstrā**, **trīgintā**, but **tubă** (nom.), **animāliă**.

960. Final **e** is long —

a. In all monosyllables except enclitics (§ 957): as, **mē**, **tē**.

b. In nouns of the fifth declension: as, **rē**, **fidē**.

c. In the active imperative singular of the second conjugation: as, **monē**.

d. In adverbs formed from adjectives of the first and second declension, except **bene** and **male**: as, **longē**, **facillimē**.

e. In some Greek words: as, **Phoebē**, **Circē**.

Elsewhere it is short.

961. Final **i** is long: as, **sitī**, **suī**, **audī**.

But it is regularly short in **nisĭ** and **quasĭ**, and usually in **mihĭ**, **tibĭ**, **sibĭ**, **ibĭ**, **ubĭ**, and in some Greek vocatives: as, **Chlōrĭ**.

962. Final **o** is regularly long.

But it is short in **egŏ**, **duŏ**, and **modŏ**, sometimes in **immŏ** and **profectŏ**, and rarely in the first person singular of verbs.

963. Final **u** is long.

964. In final **as**, **es**, and **os** the vowel is long.

But it is short in the following:

a. Greek plurals in **-as** or **-es**: as, **lampadăs**, **Trōĕs**.

b. Nominative singular in **-es** of most consonant stems: as, **milĕs**, **obsĕs**.

965. In final **is** and **us** the vowel is short.

But it is long in the following:

a. Plural case forms in **-is**: as, **bonīs**, **nōbīs**, **partīs**.

b. The second person singular in **-is** in the present indicative active of the fourth conjugation: as, **audīs**. Also **fīs**, **vīs**.

c. The second person singular in **-is** in the present subjunctive active of some irregular verbs: as, **mālīs**, **nōlīs**, **sīs**, **velīs**.

d. All the forms in **-us** of the fourth declension except the nominative singular: as, **frūctūs** (gen.).

e. Nominative singular in **-us** of nouns of the third declension having long **u** in the other cases: as, **virtūs**, **virtūtis**, but **pecŭs, pecŭdis.**

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

966. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: as, **ū-nus, mēn-sa, aes-tās, aus-pex.**

967. A syllable is long if it ends in a consonant which is followed by another consonant. Such a syllable is said to be long by position. Thus,[1] **ăd-vĕn-tŭs, pŏs-cō, ăr-mă.**

Note. The syllables underlined in the words above are long by position, but the vowel in each is short and should be so pronounced. Vowel length must be carefully distinguished from syllable length. Sometimes a syllable long by position contains a long vowel or a diphthong. It is then long for both reasons.

a. The second of the two consonants making a syllable long by position may be the initial letter of the word following. Thus, in **nūllăm spērārĕ** the syllable **-lăm** is long by position.

968. A syllable is regularly long if its vowel is followed by consonant **i**: as, **maior, aiō, peius, Gaius, Pompeius.**

Note. So also in compounds of **iaciō**, where the consonant **i** is pronounced though not written: as, **obiciō** (for **ob-iiciō**), **iniciō** (for **in-iiciō**), **reiciō** (for **re-iiciō**). So, too, in the genitives **Gaī** (for **Gaiī**), **Pompeī** (for **Pompeiī**).

969. When a short vowel is followed by a mute with **l** or **r**, the syllable may be either long or short, and is said to be common in quantity: as, **pătris** or **pătris.**

Note. The quantity of such syllables depends on the way in which the word is divided. Thus in **păt-ris** the first syllable is long because **t** is pronounced with **a** and the syllable ends in a consonant (see § 27) On the other hand, in **pă-tris** the **t** goes with the last syllable, and the first syllable ends in a short vowel and is therefore short (§ 28).

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[1] The syllables long by position are underlined.

METERS AND VERSE FORMS

970. A single line of poetry is called a *verse*.

971. A verse, like a bar of music, consists of a succession of measures. These are called *feet*.

972. A foot is a succession of syllables arranged in a recognized group.

973. The unit of measure in versification is *one short syllable*. This is called a *mora*. It is represented by the sign ⏑, or in musical notation by the quarter note (♩). A long syllable is regularly equal to two *moræ*, and is represented by the sign –, or by the half note (𝅗𝅥).

974. A foot contains as many *moræ* or beats as it has short syllables, a long syllable being always counted equal to two short ones.

975. The kinds of feet most frequently used, together with their musical notation, are the following:

Trochee,	– ⏑	or	𝅗𝅥 ♩,	containing three beats or *moræ*
Iambus,	⏑ –	or	♩ 𝅗𝅥,	containing three beats or *moræ*
Dactyl,	– ⏑ ⏑	or	𝅗𝅥 ♩ ♩,	containing four beats or *moræ*
Anapæst,	⏑ ⏑ –	or	♩ ♩ 𝅗𝅥,	containing four beats or *moræ*
Spondee,	– –	or	𝅗𝅥 𝅗𝅥,	containing four beats or *moræ*

a. A verse is named from its fundamental, or characteristic, foot: as, Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapæstic; and from the number of measures which it contains: as, Hexameter (six measures), Pentameter (five measures), Tetrameter (four measures), Trimeter (three measures).

976. Trochaic and iambic verses are measured, not by single feet, but by pairs; so that, for example, six iambic feet make a trimeter, or three measures.

977. Substitution. A long syllable may take the place of two short ones, or two short syllables the place of a long one.

Thus, a spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl (— ⏑ ⏑) or of an anapæst (⏑ ⏑ —).

978. Ictus. One syllable in each foot is pronounced with greater stress than the others. This verse beat, or musical accent, is called the *ictus* and is marked thus: —́ ⏑ ⏑. The ictus does not destroy the word accent, but is subordinate to it.

NOTE. Many hold, on the contrary, that the ictus is superior to the word accent and destroys it when in conflict with it (see § 993. *b*).

979. Thesis and Arsis. That part of the foot which receives the ictus is called the *thesis*; the unaccented part is called the *arsis*.

NOTE. Thesis means properly the *putting down*, and arsis the *raising*, of the foot in the march or dance. The regular alternation of thesis and arsis constitutes the rhythm of poetry.

980. Scansion. To divide a verse into its measures according to the rules of quantity and versification is called *scanning* or *scansion*.

981. Elision. In scanning, a final vowel or diphthong, or **m** with a preceding vowel, is regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or **h**; that is, the final and initial syllables are blended and pronounced as one syllable.

The following line shows three elisions:

mṓnstr$^{\mathbf{um}}$ **hor|rénd**$^{\mathbf{um}}$**, īn|fṓrm**$^{\mathbf{e}}$**, in|gḗns, cui|lū́men a|dḗmptum**

The nature of elision as practiced by the Romans is not certain. It is customary to omit the elided syllables entirely.

982. The **e** of **est** is lost after a word ending in **m**, a vowel, or a diphthong, and **st** is added to the final syllable of the preceding word. Thus, **victa est** is read **victast**, **āctum est** is read **āctumst**, etc.

983. Hia′tus. Sometimes elision is omitted, especially when the first word is an interjection or is followed by a pause in the sense. This omission is called *hiatus*.

> **ṓ ŭtĭ|nám pos|sém pŏpŭ|lṓs rĕpă|rā́rĕ pă|térnīs**
> **pósthăbĭ|tā̇ cŏlŭ|íssĕ Să|mō̇; hīc | ī́llĭŭs | ā́rmă**

In the first line there is hiatus between the interjection **ō** and **utinam**, and in the second between **Samō** (followed by a pause) and **hīc**.

984. Syl′laba An′ceps. The last syllable of any verse may be either long or short, and is hence called the *syllaba anceps*, or the *doubtful syllable*.

985. Cat′alectic and A′catalectic Verses. A *catalectic verse* is one in which the last foot is incomplete. An *acatalectic verse* is one in which the last foot is complete.

986. Cæsu′ra. The ending of a word within a foot is called *cæsura*. This may occur in any foot of the verse, but when it coincides with a pause in the sense, we have what is called a *cæsural pause*. Most verses have only one cæsural pause, but there may be two, and it is not necessary that there be even one. The position of each cæsura is marked by the sign ||.

Note the cæsural pauses in the following verses:

> **núnc ĕă|dém for|tū̇nă vĭ|rṓs || tot | cā́sĭbŭs | ā̇ctōs**
> **ī́nsĕquĭ|túr. || Quem | dā̇s fī|ném, || rēx | mágnĕ, lă|bō̇rŭm ?**

NOTE. The pause in the sense marking the position of the cæsural pause may be too slight to be marked by a punctuation point (cf. the first line above).

987. Diær′esis. The ending of a word with the end of a foot is called *diæresis*. There may be a pause in the sense at a diæresis. This is not, strictly speaking, a cæsural pause, but it may be marked in the same way.

Note the diæresis with pause in the following verse:

> **cṓnstĭtĭt, || ét Lib|yāē̇ dē|fī́xit | lū́mĭnă | rḗgnis**

SPECIAL IRREGULARITIES

988. Synize'sis or Synær'esis. Two vowels of different syllables may be pronounced together as one long syllable: as, **de͡inde** for **de-inde**, **me͡os** for **me-ōs**, **de͡esse** for **de-esse**, **de͡hinc** for **de-hinc.**

989. Sys'tole. A syllable regularly long is sometimes used as short: as, **stetĕrunt** for **stetērunt.**

990. Dias'tole. A final syllable regularly short is sometimes used as long. Such a syllable is nearly always one receiving the ictus and followed by the cæsural pause.

lū́ctus, u|bī́que pa|vŏ́r,* || et | plū́rima | mórtis i|mā́gō
ósten|tā́ns ar|témque pa|tĕ́r* || ar|cúmque so|nántem

Note. Both systole and diastole are sometimes merely a return to an earlier pronunciation.

991. The vowels **i** and **u** are sometimes used as consonants, **i** having the sound of *y*, and **u** of *w*. The preceding syllable then becomes long by position: as, **ab-ie-te** (*abyete*) for **a-bi-e-te, gen-ua** (*genwa*) for **ge-nu-a.**

a. Conversely, consonant **i** and **v** are sometimes used as vowels: as, **si-lu-a** for **sil-va.**

992. Tme'sis. The component parts of a compound word are sometimes separated: as, **quod erit cumque** for **quodcumque erit.** This is called *tmesis* (cutting).

RULES FOR ORAL READING OF VERSE

993. Ancient poetry was written for rhythmical recitation, chanting, or singing. It is, therefore, especially through much oral reading that metrical composition can be best understood, appreciated, and enjoyed. The following directions should be observed:

a. Pronounce the words as in prose.

This includes the proper sounding of each letter, the correct placing of the accent, and a careful observance of the quantity of each syllable. A long syllable should have twice as much time as a short one.

b. Stress slightly the syllables upon which the ictus falls.

Sometimes the word accent and the ictus coincide; but when they fall on different syllables of the same word, the word accent should be given the greater stress and the ictus be made subordinate to it.[1] In this way the word accent will be preserved and at the same time the rhythm of the verse distinctly maintained as an undertone.

c. Give attention to the thought as well as to the words, and do not come to a complete stop at the end of every verse, regardless of punctuation.

994. Apprehension of rhythm and quantity is greatly assisted by beating time to the measure as in music, the long syllables receiving two beats and the short syllables one.

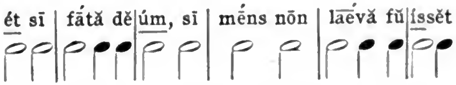
DACTYLIC VERSE

DACTYLIC HEXAMETER

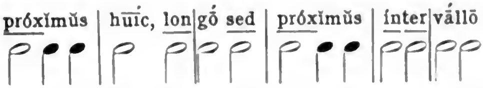
995. Dactylic hexameter is the meter used by Greek and Roman epic poets, and is often called Heroic Verse. It consists theoretically of six dactyls (— ⏑ ⏑); but a spondee (— —) may take the place of a dactyl in any foot except the fifth, and the sixth foot may be either a spondee (— —) or a trochee (— ⏑), the last syllable of a line being either long or short (§ 984). The verse may be represented thus:

— ⏔ | — ⏔ | — ⏔ | — ⏔ | — ⏑⏑ | — ⏓

Example:



a. Rarely a spondee is found in the fifth foot; the verse is then called *sponda'ic* and usually ends with a word of four syllables.



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[1] Many dissent from this view and give the greater stress to the ictus, even to the complete neglect of the word accent.

996. The Cæsu′ral Pause. The dactylic hexameter has regularly one cæsural pause, sometimes two, accompanied by a pause in the sense (§ 986).

997. The cæsural pause is usually after the thesis of the *third* foot.

ét sī | fā́ta de|úm, || sī | mḗns nōn | laḗva fu|ísset

998. Less frequently the cæsural pause is after the thesis of the *fourth* foot, usually with a second cæsura in the second foot.

nṓn gale|aḗ, || nōn | ḗnsis e|rát: || sine | mī́litis | ū́sū

a. A pause in the sense in the fourth foot, with no such pause in the third, is a sure indication that the cæsura is in the fourth foot and not in the third.

999. Occasionally the cæsural pause is between the two short syllables of the third foot, its presence there being indicated by a pause in the sense.

mémbra so|lṓ posu|ḗre; || si|múl sup|rḗma ia|céntēs

a. Such a cæsura is called *feminine*, while one occurring after the first syllable of a foot is called *masculine*. A masculine cæsura is far more common than a feminine.

1000. Sometimes it is impossible to determine the cæsural pause with certainty, and a diæresis (§ 987) may take the place of the cæsural pause.

séntiat. || Át quoni|ám con|cúrrere | cómminus | hóstī

1001. The dactylic hexameter rarely ends in a monosyllable.

1002. The first seven verses of Vergil's Æneid afford a good example of dactylic hexameter, and are scanned as follows:

Ármă vĭ|rúmquĕ că|nṓ || Trō|iaḗ quī | prī́mŭs ăb | ṓrīs
Ī́tălĭ|ám fā|tṓ prŏfŭ|gús || Lā|vī́ni͜ăquĕ | vēnĭt

lī́tŏră, | múlt^{um} il|l^{e} ét ter|rī́s || iac|tā́tŭs ĕt | áltō
vī́ sŭpĕ|rúm sa͞e|va͞é mĕmŏ|rém Iū|nṓnĭs ŏb | ī́răm ;
múltă quŏ|qu^{e} ét bel|lṓ pas|sús || dum | cóndĕrĕt | úrbĕm,
īnfer|rétquĕ dĕ|ṓs Lătĭ|ṓ, || gĕnŭs | úndĕ Lă|tī́nŭm
Álbā|nī́quĕ pă|trḗs || at|qu^{e} álta͞e | mo͞énĭă | Rṓma͞e.

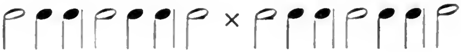
a. Dactylic hexameter in English verse is illustrated by the following lines from Longfellow's "Evangeline":

Thís is the fórest priméval. The múrmuring pínes and the hémlocks,
Beárded with móss, and in gárments gréen, índistínct in the twílight,
Stánd like Drúids of éld, with vóices sád and prophétic,
Stánd like hárpers hoár, with beárds that rést on their bósoms.

DACTYLIC PENTAMETER

1003. The dactylic pentameter is the same as the hexameter except that it omits the unaccented part (arsis) of the third foot and of the sixth foot. It consists therefore of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls and a long syllable. The first half of the verse always ends with a word and is followed by a pause. The scheme of the verse is as follows:

∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ × ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠ ∪ ∪ | ∠



Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first half, but not in the second, and the last syllable of the line may be either long or short (§ 984).

1004. Elegi'ac Dis'tich. The dactylic pentameter is rarely used alone, but regularly combines with a preceding hexameter to form a couplet (distich), as illustrated in English by —

In the hex|ameter | rises || the | fountain's | silvery | column,
In the pen|tameter | aye × falling in | melody | back.

This form of verse became the favorite of writers of Latin elegy, such as Catullus, Tibullus, Propertius, and Ovid, and hence it is known as the elegiac distich, or elegiac stanza. The distich is generally a unit in thought as well as in form, the sense rarely being left uncompleted at its close.

1005. The following verses from Ovid well illustrate the elegiac distich:

Cúm sŭbĭt | íllī|ús trīs|tíssĭmă | nóctĭs ĭ|mā́gō
quā́ mĭhĭ | súprē|múm × témpŭs ĭn | úrbĕ fŭ|ĭ́t,
cúm rĕpĕ|tṓ noc|tém || quā | tót mĭhĭ | cā́ră rĕ|lī́quī,
lā́bĭtŭr | éx ŏcŭ|lī́s × núnc quŏquĕ | gúttă mĕ|ī́s.

APPENDIX

THE ROMAN CALENDAR

1006. In earlier times the Romans designated the year of an event by the names of the consuls, in the ablative absolute: as, **M. Messālā M. Pīsōne cōnsulibus,** *in the consulship of Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso.* Later the year was reckoned from the founding of the city (**ab urbe conditā** or **annō urbis conditae,** abbreviated to A.U.C.), the date of which is assigned to the year 753 B.C. In order, therefore, to find the year of the Christian era corresponding to a given Roman date A.U.C., the number of the Roman year must be subtracted from 754, 1 being added to 753 to allow for the Roman custom of including both extremes when reckoning the difference between two numbers. For example, Cæsar was killed in 710 A.U.C., or 44 (754–710) B.C.

1007. Before Julius Cæsar's reform of the calendar (46 B.C.) the Roman year consisted of 355 days. All the months had 29 days except March, May, July, and October, which had 31 days, and February, which had 28. As this calendar year was too short for the solar year, a month of varying length (**mēnsis intercalāris**) was inserted every other year after February 23, the rest of February being omitted.

1008. The Julian calendar, as reformed by Julius and Augustus Cæsar, had 365 days, divided into months as at present, February having 29 days every fourth year. The Julian calendar remained unchanged till the adoption of the Gregorian calendar, A.D. 1582, which omits leap year three times in every four hundred years.

1009. The names of the months, used as masculine or feminine adjectives, were as follows:

Iānuārius, -a, (-um)
Februārius, -a, (-um)
Mārtius, -a, (-um)
Aprīlis, (-e)
Maius, -a, (-um)
Iūnius, -a, (-um)
Quīntīlis, (-e)
Sextīlis, (-e)
September, -bris, (-bre)
Octōber, -bris, (-bre)
November, -bris, (-bre)
December, -bris, (-bre)

The year was formerly regarded as beginning with March, which made July the *fifth* (**quīntīlis**) month, August the *sixth* (**sextīlis**), etc. The month **Quīntīlis** was later called **Iūlius** in honor of Julius Cæsar, and **Sextīlis** was called **Augustus** in honor of the emperor Augustus.

1010. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month, namely, the *Calends* (**Kalendae, -ārum,** F.), the first day of the month; the *Nones* (**Nōnae, -ārum,** F.), the fifth day; and the *Ides* (**Īdūs, Īduum,** F.), the thirteenth.

However, in March, May, July, and October the Nones fell on the seventh day, and the Ides on the fifteenth.

Kalendae **Nōnae** **Īdūs** **Kalendae**
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 . . . 27 28 29 30 31 1

An event occurring at any one of these points was said to occur *on the Calends*, *on the Nones*, or *on the Ides*, and the date was expressed by the simple ablative of time. The noun denoting the date was modified by the adjective representing the month in question.

Kalendīs Februāriīs, *on the first of February*
Nōnīs Aprīlibus, *on the fifth of April*
Nōnīs Octōbribus, *on the seventh of October*
Īdibus Iānuāriīs, *on the thirteenth of January*
Īdibus Mārtiīs, *on the fifteenth of March*

a. From the Calends, Nones, and Ides the dates in the month were reckoned *backwards*. The date immediately preceding any one of them was expressed by the word **prīdiē**, used as a preposition followed by the accusatives **Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdūs**, modified by the adjective form of the word denoting the month.

prīdiē Kalendās Februāriās, *the thirty-first of January*
prīdiē Nōnās Iānuāriās, *the fourth of January*
prīdiē Īdūs Mārtiās, *the fourteenth of March*
prīdiē Īdūs Septembrēs, *the twelfth of September*

b. The dates intervening between any two points were counted as so many days *before* the second point. The Romans, however, in reckoning a series, counted both extremes; for example, the eleventh day of April was counted as the *third* day before the Ides (that is, the thirteenth), the tenth of April as the *fourth* day before the Ides. And in counting back from the Calends to a date in the preceding month the Calends were included; thus a Roman would say that there are four days from August 29 to September 1 (cf. § 1012. *d*).

In expressing dates the phrase **ante diem** (translated *the day before*) was used with the accusatives **Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdūs**, the word **diem** being modified by the proper ordinal numeral.

ante diem quārtum Kalendās Septembrēs, *the fourth day before the Calends of September (August 29)*
ante diem quārtum Kalendās Octōbrēs, *the fourth day before the Calends of October (September 28)*
ante diem sextum Īdūs Mārtiās, *the sixth day before the Ides of March (March 10)*
ante diem quīntum Nōnās Maiās, *the fifth day before the Nones of May (May 3)*

NOTE 1. These expressions were generally abbreviated as follows:

a. d. IV. Kal. Sept. or **IV. Kal. Sept.**
a. d. VI. Īd. Mārt. or **VI. Īd. Mārt.**
a. d. V. Nōn. Maiās or **V. Nōn. Maiās**

NOTE 2. The phrase **ante diem** probably originated thus: the ablative form denoting *time when* (followed by **ante**), as, **diē tertiō ante** etc., came to be written *after* **ante** instead of *before* it; subsequently **ante diē tertiō** became **ante diem tertium**, as if the noun were governed by **ante**.

c. The whole expression denoting a date was sometimes treated as a single substantive governed by a preposition.

> **in a. d. V. Kal. Nov.**, *to the fifth day before the Calends of November* (*October 28*)
>
> **opus contulit in ante diem III. Īd. Oct.**, *he postponed the work to the third day before the Ides of October* (*October 13*)

1011. To find the equivalent in English for a date given in Latin, observe the following rule:

If the given Latin date is counted from the Calends, add *two* to the number of days in the preceding month, and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date; if from the Nones or the Ides, add *one* to the day on which they fall, and from the number thus ascertained subtract the given date.

> **a. d. VI. Kal. Iān.** (31 + 2 – 6), *December 27*
> **a. d. V. Nōn. Oct.** (7 + 1 – 5), *October 3*
> **a. d. III. Īd. Apr.** (13 + 1 – 3), *April 11*

1012. To express an English date in Latin observe the following rules:

a. If the date is that on which the Calends, Nones, or Ides respectively fall, use the simple ablative of time (**Kalendīs**, **Nōnīs**, or **Īdibus**) modified by the adjective representing the month in question (cf. § 1010).

b. If the date immediately precedes the Calends, Nones, or Ides, use **prīdiē** followed by the accusative **Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, or **Īdūs**, as the case may be, and the adjective form of the word denoting the month (cf. § 1010. *a*).

c. If the date falls between the first and the fourth (or the sixth of March, May, July, or October), subtract one from the English date, and subtract this remainder from the date on which the Nones fall. The number thus obtained (usually preceded by **ante diem** or **a. d.**) followed by **Nōnās** or **Nōn.** and the name of the month will be the expression desired.

If the date falls between the fifth and twelfth (or the seventh and fourteenth of March, May, July, or October), follow the rule above, substituting the Ides for the Nones (cf. § 1010. *b*).

d. If the date is later than the thirteenth (or fifteenth of March, May, July, or October), subtract two from the English date, and subtract this remainder from the number of days in the month. The number thus obtained (usually preceded by **ante diem** or **a. d.**) followed by **Kalendās** or **Kal.** and the name of the *next* month will be the expression desired (cf. § 1010. *b*).

ABBREVIATIONS

abl. = ablative
abs. = absolute
acc. = accusative
act. = active
adj. = adjective
adv. = adverb
app. = appositive
attrib. = attributive
cf. (*cōnfer*) = compare
cl. = clause
comp. = composition
compar. = comparison
comps. = compounds
conj. = conjugation
cons. = consonant
constr. = construction
dat. = dative
decl. = declension
defect. = defective
descript. = descriptive
dir. = direct
fem. = feminine
ff. = and following
ftn. = footnote
fut. = future
gen. = genitive
id. (*idem*) = the same
impers. = impersonal
imv. = imperative
ind. disc. = indirect discourse
ind. quest. = indirect question
indecl. = indeclinable
indic. = indicative
inf. = infinitive
interrog. = interrogative
intrans. = intransitive
loc. = locative
masc. = masculine
N. = Note
neg. = negative
neut. = neuter
nom. = nominative
obj. = object
part. = participle
pass. = passive
perf. = perfect
pers. = personal
plur. = plural
poss. = possessive
pred. = predicate
prep. = preposition
pres. = present
prin. = principal
pron. = pronoun
quest. = question
rel. = relative
sing. = singular
subj. = subject
subjv. = subjunctive
subord. = subordinate
subst. = substantive
superl. = superlative
trans. = transitive
vb. = verb
voc. = vocative
w. = with

Other abbreviations need no explanation. When only the last article in a reference group needs to be consulted, the parts of the group are separated by periods; otherwise commas are used.

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